Cognitive Development and Literacy Skills

MODULE 1: MT 201

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Cognitive Development and Literacy Skills

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Module Title: Cognitive Development and Literacy Skills
Module Credit Hours: 3

Technical Assistance provided by the Florida State University, as a partner to RTI International on the READ TA project (2012-2017) with funding from the United States Agency for International Development (USAID-Ethiopia).

This Module has been prepared by the Florida State University team and Instructors from Colleges of Teacher Education representing seven Ethiopian national languages. It has been developed in collaboration with the Ministry of Education (MOE), Regional State Education Bureaus (RSEB) and Colleges of Teacher Education (CTE) with support from RTI International as the implementer of READ TA and Florida State University as its partner.

The authors’ views expressed in this publication do not necessarily reflect the views of the United States Agency for International Development or the United States Government.

2015
Addis Ababa
Ethiopia
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Initiated in October 2012, the Reading for Ethiopia’s Achievement Developed Technical Assistance Project (READ TA) is a USAID funded five-year project (2012-2017) to improve the reading and writing skills of primary grades students in mother tongue languages. RTI International, READ TA, MOE/RSEBs, Save the Children, Florida State University, SIL LEAD, Whiz Kids, Inveneo, and Africa Development Corps worked together for the effective implementation of the project objectives.

The national mother tongue (MT) teacher education program has been collaboratively developed by the Ministry of Education, Regional Education Bureaus, Colleges of Teacher Education Program and the Florida State University (FSU). The mother tongue teacher education program was validated in the presence of regional TDP heads, deans of colleges of education, teacher educators and representatives of curriculum, TDP, gender, special education and ICT from the Ministry of Education. The inputs from the validation workshop were used in revising the teacher education program. In addition, one of the fundamental modules of the MT teacher education program (Cognitive Development and Literacy Skills) has been developed in the English and adapted to seven mother tongue languages.

This module is designed to help all CTE Instructors to become fully competent to explain and to teach Cognitive Development and Literacy Skills. The first edition of this module was field-tested in the 2014-2015 Academic year. Approximately, 200 CTE instructors participated in the Training Workshop in August 2014 prior to teaching MT201 using this module. The Training workshop for Module1: MT201 was facilitated by Florida State University’s Reading experts in conjunction with MOE/RSEB/Zonal and CTE MT Instructors.

During the implementation of the first module, the FSU team monitored and evaluated the module implementation in collaboration with MOE/RSEB/Zones and CTE instructors. After learning how CTE instructors and their students are utilizing the module, the team conducted several workshops to revise the first edition of Module 1:MT201 in order to address the issues that emerged during the monitoring and evaluation conducted at 14 CTEs from November 2014 to February 2015.

This module has been field tested by instructors in all CTEs teaching MT201 in the target seven languages. It has been revised and reproduced for final distribution to all CTEs in Ethiopia where there is a Mother Tongue Language Program for preservice teachers.

Module 1: MT201 has been produced in English and seven Ethiopian national languages: Amharic, Tigrinya, Wolayttatto, Af-Somali, Sidaamu Afoo, Afan Oromo, and Hadiyyissa.

The FSU team involved in the Module 1 production and Training Workshops includes:

- Dr. Flavia Ramos-Mattoussi (Principal Investigator/ FSU Project Director)
- Dr. Dawit Mekonnen (National Coordinator for FSU in Ethiopia)
- Dr. Marion Fesmire (Reading Expert/FSU Team Leader)
- Dr. Shannon Hall-Mills (FSU Reading Expert)
- Dr. Adrienne Barnes (FSU Reading Expert)
- Mackenzie Johnson (FSU Reading Expert)

Other FSU members in a supporting role include:

- Dr. Young Suk Kim (FSU Reading Expert Advisor)
The MT Language Instructors from the Colleges of Teacher Education (CTE) in collaboration with RSEB and MOE representatives adapted the Module 1: MT201 to the seven mother tongue languages. Those include the following:

### Adaptation Workshop – Module 1: MT201

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The following MT Language Instructors from the Colleges of Teacher Education (CTE) and representatives from RSEB and MOE were the first to develop the Module from the English prototype provided by the Florida State University team to the final Module 1:MT201, adapted to local context and in alignment with primary curriculum (grades 1-8).

### Development Workshop – Module 1:MT201

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The MT Language Instructors from the Colleges of Teacher Education (CTE), who co-facilitated the Module 1 Training in Mother Tongue, include:

Module 1: MT210 Training Workshop

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We are very thankful to the teacher educators who helped review and revise the adapted module for final production in the seven mother tongue languages from May 27 to July 10, 2015.

Participants who revised and helped produce the final copy of the Adapted Module 1 (MT201) June-July, 2015, include the following:

Module 1:MT201 Revision and Production Workshop

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We are also thankful for the support provided by RTI International and the READ TA staff members and regional managers; former Chief of Party, Barbara Toye-Welsh and present Chief of Party, Dr. Stephen Backman; the Ministry of Education in Ethiopia, Ato Eshetu, Director of Curriculum Directorate; Teachers and Educational Leaders Development Directorate, W/ro Abebech Negash, Director; Yasabu Berkneh and Abebe Garedew (TPD/ Experts); and all the RSEB/Zonal and CTE instructors who dedicated their time and expertise to develop, adapt and revise this module.

We hope this module will contribute to improving the reading and writing skills of fifteen million Ethiopian children in the near future.
Dear student teachers!

Language skills are fundamental to learning all subjects. Students, who cannot properly read and write, will struggle to learn other subjects. Traditionally, there is an assumption that learning a mother tongue is a natural process that requires little instruction from teachers and little effort from students.

Research in Ethiopian schools reveals that our primary students are unable to read many of the words and texts in their mother tongue. One of the major studies that clearly showed the poor state of mother tongue education in Ethiopia is the Early Grade Reading Assessment (EGRA) study (Mejia, 2010). In May and June 2010, the EGRA was given to primary students in eight regions in Ethiopia: Amhara, Oromia, Tigray, Somali, SNNP, Harar, Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa, (USAID, 2010). The findings from the assessment are that a significant percentage of children attending school for two or three years are unable to read and write. Most critically, the findings reveal that the reading skills of students were too low. As a result, they are unable to comprehend what they read. In fact, in most regions the results of measures of reading comprehension indicated that more than 50% of the children in grades 2 and 3 were unable to answer a single comprehension question (USAID, 2010). This makes it difficult for students to make progress in reading and writing and hinders the learning of other subjects.

The results of the EGRA study made it evident that there is a need to revisit the teaching and learning of mother tongue in Ethiopian schools. While reading has been a major concern of primary education, Ethiopian schools have taught the mother tongue subject in a traditional way. There has also been a lack of clearly stated philosophical and pedagogical directions as to how mother tongue should be taught in schools. Awareness of this problem, and the findings of the study, has highlighted the importance of re designing the mother tongue curriculum. It has also been recognized that learning how to read and write in early grades is indispensable for students’ future development. Some of the major recommendations from the assessment are:

- Focus on reading and writing instruction.
- Start early, in Grades 1 and 2. Use letter sounds and the Fidel sound(s) as building blocks for reading.
- Teaching decoding is critical.
- Encourage reading.
- Teach formal comprehension strategies.
- Set literacy benchmarks.
- Expand literacy interventions.
- Develop targeted lesson plans.
- Provide on-going professional development.
- Develop and use significant reading materials.

This course will focus on teachers’ understanding of reading and writing development. Student teachers will develop a basic understanding of reading and writing as literacy skills involving complex cognitive and linguistic processes. They will examine these processes in relation to their students’ instructional needs. Student-teachers will gain knowledge of the developmental progression of the reading and writing processes so that they can apply this knowledge in their practices to provide effective reading, speaking, listening, and writing (literacy) instruction.
Student-teachers will learn about the role of oral language, listening comprehension, early literacy, and decoding/encoding skills in the development of advanced reading and writing skills; they will also learn about how developmental reading processes apply across multiple components of reading (e.g., phonological awareness, graphophonemic awareness, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension).

In addition, the module discusses writing processes, types of sentences and paragraphs. Student-teachers will acquire basic knowledge and develop the skills to apply instructional strategies to meet the needs of diverse learners and to help them move from learning to read to reading to learn.

**MODULE LEARNING OUTCOMES**

At the end of this module, student-teachers will be able to:

- Describe the reading development phases and their implication to the teaching of children of various developmental reading levels.
- Explain the 5 major areas of reading: (1) phonological awareness, (2) graphophonemic awareness, (3) fluency, (4) oral language and vocabulary, and (5) listening and reading comprehension and how these areas support reading comprehension.
- Demonstrate understanding of the progression of phonological (sound) and graphophonemic (letter/sound) awareness.
- Appreciate the importance of explicit instruction in developing emergent literacy skills among students.
- Describe the various developmental phases, and the use of scaffolding, in helping children learn how to write.
- State how home literacy supports students’ reading progress and strategies parents can use to support students’ reading.
- Differentiate the different phases of spelling development and the role of spelling in developing reading and writing skills.
- Summarize the components of reading fluency (e.g., prosody/expression, accuracy, and rate) and effective strategies for building student’s fluency (e.g., echo reading, paired reading, repeated reading, reader’s theater, poetry, song lyrics, model prosody, etc.).
- Explain the different techniques for learning new words.
- Understand the relationship between vocabulary growth and reading skill development.
- Summarize the developmental processes involved in learning new words and the depth of learning required for mastering meaning of new words.
- Compare and contrast major comprehension models.
- Synthesize the various comprehension strategies and techniques for developing comprehension skills.
- Differentiate the types of narrative and expository text structures and their corresponding signal words or phrases.
- Understand the multiple factors that influence comprehension (e.g., language, cognitive development, children’s background knowledge, motivation and text structure).
- Use the writing processes and appropriate punctuation marks in developing paragraphs and essays.
- Write different types of paragraphs with high writing fluency.
THE STRUCTURE OF THE MODULE

This module is organized by chapters and sections. Each chapter includes learning outcomes, contents, assessment methods, teaching and learning strategies, activities, a chapter summary, review questions and self-assessment activities. References for each chapter and a glossary of words and terms used are indicated at the end of the module.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES AND MODES OF TEACHING

The module is intended to be delivered in a student-centered and contextually meaningful manner. This module requires largely interactive classrooms where students take an active role in several forms of activities, including work in small groups; and participating in peer discussions, demonstrations, reflections, peer evaluations, presentations, debates, and project work. Teacher-talk or lectures should be kept to a minimum to give students more time to practice and discuss the concepts presented in the module.

The module provides multiple opportunities for student-teachers to review theories and concepts of reading components. The content, approaches and teaching strategies presented in this module are aligned with the new primary school mother tongue curriculum (grades 1-8) and textbooks.

The estimated time required for completing each chapter in the module is indicated at the beginning of each chapter. Teachers are advised to allocate sufficient time to each task depending on the total amount of time allocated for each chapter.

ASSESSMENT TECHNIQUES

Continuous assessment techniques are used for teaching and evaluating student-teachers. These techniques may take the form of oral and written tests, presentations and final examinations. The following are suggested techniques of continuous assessment (with recommended mark allocations).

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<th>Table 1 ASSESSMENT TECHNIQUES</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Quiz</td>
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<td>2 Class attendance and participation</td>
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<tr>
<td>3 Presentation of individual, pair and group work on activities and project work</td>
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<td>4 Written report of some selected activities and project work</td>
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<tr>
<td>5 Exams</td>
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TEACHING RESOURCES

This module should be used by CTE instructors as the main course book in order to teach/train student-teachers for teaching mother tongue language in primary schools (Grades 1-8). The new mother tongue textbooks and teacher’s guide for Grades 1-8 should be used as the main references and reading materials. Student-teachers and the MT teacher educator should consult the references and resources indicated at the end of the module (listed by chapter).

_We wish you an exciting time of study!_
Dear student!

Please note that the following icons or symbols are used in this Module for making reference easier for you. The table below lists all the icons used in this module followed by their meaning.

- This tells you that there is an introduction to the module, unit and section.
- This tells you that there is an introduction to the module.
- This tells you that there is question to answer or to think about in the text.
- This tells you that there is an activity to do.
- This tells you to note and remember an important point.
- This tells you that there is a self-test for you to do.
- This tells you that there is a checklist of the main points.
- This tells you that there is written assignment.
This tells you that these are the answers to the activities and self-test questions.

This tells you that there are learning outcomes to the Module or Unit.

This tells you that there is an activity to do.

This tells you that there is a conclusion to the unit.

This tells you that there is an assignment to do.

This tells you that there is a video to watch.

This tells you that there is a student textbook or teacher’s manual to use.

This tells you that there is time for silent reading.
CHAPTER 1: OVERALL FRAMEWORK OF LITERACY

Time allotted for this chapter = 6 hours

OUTLINE OF CONTENTS

1.1 Cognitive Development and Reading
1.2 Phases of Cognitive Development in Reading and Word Recognition
1.3 The Importance of Teacher’s Knowledge of Reading Development
1.4 Parts of the Brain and how they Process Information
   1.4.1 Parts of the Brain
   1.4.2 How the Brain Processes Information
1.5 Overview of the Five Areas of Reading
   1.5.1 Phonological Awareness
   1.5.2 Graphophonemic Awareness and Spelling
   1.5.3 Reading Fluency
   1.5.4 Oral Language and Vocabulary
   1.5.5 Listening and Reading Comprehension
1.6 Characteristics of Good Readers
1.7 Approaches Used to Teach Reading
   1.7.1 Whole Language (also called Language Experience)
   1.7.2 Skill Based (also called the Phonics Approach)
1.8 Writing Development

INTRODUCTION

Teachers’ knowledge of reading and writing development is important for making learning to read natural and effective for their students. Hence, this chapter uses research-based findings to discuss the following concepts (a) the cognitive development (how the brain processes information) when reading; (b) cognitive developmental phases in reading (the stages children go through in learning to read) and phases of word recognition (how children learn to read words); (c) the importance of teachers’ knowledge of reading development; (d) an overview of the five areas of effective reading; (e) writing instruction, (f) reading instructional methods, (g) what good readers do when reading and (h) writing development. In order to make the contents concrete, selected activities and examples are used in the chapter. In some cases, you will see the examples from the mother tongue primary reading materials.
LEARNING OUTCOMES

At the end of this chapter, student-teachers will be able to:

- Explain the relationship between Cognitive Development and Reading
- State how the brain processes information
- Discuss how the theory of cognitive development explains the developmental stages that students go through when learning to read
- Identify parts of the brain that are used when reading and writing
- Explain the importance of teacher’s knowledge of reading development
- Discuss the developmental stages of learning to read words
- Discuss the five areas of reading and writing
- Discuss characteristics of good readers and weak readers
- Explain two major approaches of reading

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

- Charts
- References
- Primary Mother Tongue materials (1-8 grades)
- Pictures/Models
- Audio-Visual Resources

TEACHING AND LEARNING TECHNIQUES

- Interactive lecture – present and discuss topics based on the language and educational background of the students
- Task based approach – allow students to initiate ideas, design strategies, and reach their own solutions
- Independent study and project methods – encourage students to question, read, and present solutions
- Peer and group work

ASSESSMENT TECHNIQUES

- Oral questions and answers
- Individual, pair, and group work
- Project work
- Reflection
- Classroom participation
1.1 COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT AND READING

Cognitive development is a field of study in medicine and psychology that looks at how children receive and store information in the brain. Cognitive development is a theory used to explain the ability to think and understand. Jean Piaget was a pioneer in the establishment of this field, forming his “theory of cognitive development” (Atherton, 2013, p.2).

From a cognitive (brain) point of view, this theory is important in understanding how children learn. All children do not begin to read at the same age. Children go through different stages of learning to read; it is a developmental process. For example, children develop a basic oral vocabulary and recognize letters, or fidels, before they begin to read. Although children may enter school at about the same chronological age, they are at various phases of reading development. A child understands the spoken words and his or her knowledge of print has an impact on reading skills. As a result, teachers need to understand the developmental phases of learning to read so that all of their young students are successful learners. Knowing how children learn to read can help the teacher know what type of instruction is needed.

Reading is a process in which we construct meaning from print. Constructing meaning from print is comprehending a written text. Therefore, comprehending involves activating schema; which is how we organize knowledge in the brain (Gunning, 2013). Reading is a complex process, and children need instruction that includes many elements. Children who are first learning to read need appropriate help in understanding, learning, and using the spelling sound conventions of the writing system. They also need opportunities to enjoy the information and pleasure offered by print. They will also need to learn more and more about the vocabulary and sentence structure of a written language (National Research Council, 1999).

1.2 PHASES OF COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT IN READING AND WORD RECOGNITION

I. Phases of Cognitive Development in Reading

Children increase their reading skills as they go through school, but the right instruction at the right time is important. Some children do not have the cognitive skills necessary to read at a particular level. This causes them to become frustrated and lose confidence in their reading abilities.

Frustration leads to the students having more reading difficulties. Therefore, teachers must make sure the reading activities they give to students are at their level of cognitive development.

Most children follow similar patterns and sequences of reading behaviors as they learn how to read; from print awareness to pretend reading, to identifying fidels/alphabet letters, and when learning to read. By grades 3 and 4, students are using the skills to read content area information; they are reading to learn. There are distinct phases of development across this continuum of learning to read, and there are specific reading behaviors that can be seen at each of these phases. Researchers have used words to explain the phases of reading development, for most models there are five phases of learning to read (Chall, 1983; Dorn & Soffos, 2001; Fountas & Pinnell, 1996; Snow, Burns & Griffin, 1998).

These developmental phases of learning to read give teachers an idea, based on observations of reading behaviors, of each student’s level of reading skills.
II. PHASES OF WORD RECOGNITION

One model, that is used to explain how word knowledge is developed, is by Ehri & McCormick (1998). This model discusses four phases of how children learn to recognize words when learning to read. The table below is an overview of both the phases of cognitive development in reading and the phases of word recognition. They are listed side by side so you can see how they develop at different levels of learning.

The following table discusses Phases of Cognitive Development in Reading and Word Recognition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PHASES OF COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT IN READING</th>
<th>PHASES OF WORD RECOGNITION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1. AWARENESS AND EXPLORATION PHASE: BABIES AND TODDLERS.

Literacy development begins when an infant first hears spoken word, and is exposed to the difference between spoken and printed words. It helps when infants hear someone reading. Parents should read aloud to infants using brightly colored board books. Nursery rhymes and poetry can also be used, since they are repetitive and can hold a baby's attention. As the infant becomes a toddler, it is important to begin showing the child how words are related with the objects in the child's world. Parents, or family, can point to an object and asking, "What's that?" At this phase, children will begin to recognize letters/fidels and can associate certain letters/fidels with the sounds they make.

2. EXPERIMENTAL READING AND WRITING PHASE: PRE- SCHOOL AGE.

At this phase, children are learning the alphabet song (Latin script) and the letters/fidels found in important words like their own name, and their parent's names, and their home address. Parents can point to commercial signs and ask the child to name the letters, or sounds of fidels. Children are excited to look at books at this age, and daily reading can help a child reading skills. Children also begin to scribble letters/fidels and write their own name at this age.

PRE-ALPHABETIC PHASE

During this phase, children learn words that they see in the environment by using visual cues. For example, reading Coca-Cola on the bottle, or reading words on a sign. Using visual cues in the word is another strategy (e.g., the letters oo in look). In this phase, the student does not have an understanding of a how letters/fidels and sounds are related.
### 3. EARLY LEARNING READING AND WRITING PHASE: KINDERGARTEN TO FIRST GRADE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PARTIAL ALPHABETIC PHASE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>When they begin school, children learn to read using graphophonemic awareness; phonics. Phonics is recognizing letter/fidel sounds and combining two or more letter/fidel sounds to make a word. Children write phonetically in this phase. Instead of spelling the word correctly, children will write what they hear when they say the word. The word picture is written as pikcher by many children in this phase. They understand sentences and the individual words are separated by spaces.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During this phase, children begin to know that there is a relationship between letters/fidels and sounds. The child may recognize some of the sounds and letters/fidels, and read part of the word. The child begins to use the sounds for the letters/fidels to remember new words, but may confuse some letters/fidels and their sounds. When writing, the child may write some of the letters/fidels in a word.

Words that are read and seen, and read many times, are memorized. When reading, the child may read out loud, read slowly word by word, and finger point as reading. For example, the child may be confused in identifying the /c/ sounds in the words cell, cut, and cat. Similarly, they may pronounce ‘ষা’ as ‘ষা’.

### 4. TRANSITIONAL READING AND WRITING PHASE: SECOND AND THIRD GRADE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FULL ALPHABETIC PHASE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Children recognize words and their meaning. Children in this phase are able to read without help and are beginning to understand that writing can be used for communication. Reading comprehension improves in this phase; children are able to understand the important ideas in a statement.  

They can put together several ideas to form the whole picture. It may be useful to help children to relate stories to their own lives to help them better understand the book. For example, ask them if they have ever had the same thing happen to them (have you ever had a good friend?) |

In this phase, the child is able to remember how to read words by accurately connecting sounds to letters/fidels. The child can correctly sound out new words (decode) when reading and can quickly read known words. In addition, the child can segment words into sounds to write and spell words. Reading of passages becomes more accurate, and children read with fluency and expression. There is also awareness that there are patterns in words.

### 5. COMPETENT READING AND WRITING PHASE: FOURTH GRADE AND BEYOND

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONSOLIDATED ALPHABETIC PHASE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At this phase, children are strong readers and are able to read long novels and long, unfamiliar words. They can read and understand different types of text, with little or no help.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During this phase, the child can quickly read new words and familiar words. The child is reading new words in word parts, instead of using letter/fidel sound correspondences, called chunking. The child recognizes word patterns and creates new words by adding word parts together. As children move through each phase, their knowledge of words and their meanings increases dramatically.
ACTIVITY 1: INDIVIDUAL REFLECTION

Answer the following questions individually.

A) Based on your previous experience, have you ever noticed how children learn to read words and sentences?

B) How did this look different when observing a grade 1 child and a grade 5 child?

ACTIVITY 2: PAIR-SHARE

Answer the following questions in pairs and share with the class.

A) Why knowing the above phases of reading development is important for parents, primary school teachers, and students in supporting children’s reading development?

B) What do we need to do when helping children learn to read and write? Please share your findings to the whole class.

ACTIVITY 3: PROJECT WORK

Visit grades 1-3 classrooms in the school near your college and observe students reading. See if you can identify in which phase several students are in their reading development. You may have to design your own data gathering tool to classify students’ reading development. Support your observation with evidence from the above information and write a report and present it to the class.

1.3. THE IMPORTANCE OF TEACHERS’ KNOWLEDGE OF READING DEVELOPMENT

ACTIVITY 4: THINK-PAIR-SHARE

Answer the following question individually. Then, discuss with your partner and share your answer to the class.

A. Why do language teachers need to learn about children’s reading development?

As teachers, we must study/learn about reading development to make sure that all children learn to read. The major reasons are to:

1) Understand how children learn, particularly how they learn to read influences instructional approaches that effective teachers use (Tomkins 2003).
2) Understand that readers go about reading words and comprehending texts with different speed. Recognize that decoding and comprehending texts are interrelated: this process differs according to the reading ability, text type, reader’s background, etc.’.

3) Identify the development of reading ability of the student and to help struggling readers.

4) Understand that goal of reading is comprehension and that teachers lead to monitor students’ level of understanding.

5) Enables teachers to encourage students to understand parts of language (phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics) while reading. In relation to this, Moats (1995) explains that knowledge of language structure is critical for successful teachers for the following reasons:
   A) interpreting and responding to student errors,
   B) choosing the best examples of words for teaching sound-symbol relationships,
   C) being able to organize sequence information for instruction,
   D) being able to use knowledge of morphology to explain spelling, and
   E) being able to integrate word study in to meaningful reading and writing activities.

1.4 PARTS OF THE BRAIN AND HOW THEY PROCESS INFORMATION

1.4.1 PARTS of the BRAIN

The brain is made up of two mirror-image sides, called hemispheres. The left hemisphere of the brain is associated with speech, language processing, reading and writing. Different parts of the left brain must work together when someone is speaking, reading and/or writing. It is still not clear how the brain makes these connections.

The right hemisphere is mainly in charge of spatial abilities, face recognition and processing music. It performs some math, but only rough estimations and comparisons. The brain’s right side also helps us to comprehend visual imagery and make what sense of what we see. It plays a role in language, particularly in interpreting context and a person’s tone. In general, the left hemisphere is dominant in language: processing what you hear and handling most of the duties of speaking.

ACTIVITY 5: ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS.

A) To which hemisphere of the brain is reading associated?

B) Why is this information important for language teachers?
1.4.2 HOW THE BRAIN PROCESSES INFORMATION

When a person speaks, reads, or writes, the brain is active. There are four systems that work together to process the information (Honig et al, 2006). The diagram shown below (Fig. 1 Four Processing System) can help us understand what these four systems are and how they work together.

![Diagram showing four processing systems](image)

Think of a child reading apples for the first time:

- A child in Grade 1 sees the word *apples*, written in the student book.

The *phonological* processor is used to identify the sounds. By using this processor, it is possible to recognize if the sounds are the same or different. It also helps to say sounds in words when reading words.

When reading or writing, the orthographic processor is used to recognize letters/words and words. The *orthographic* processor works with the phonological processor to associate letters and words with speech sounds. This makes it possible to fluently read words that have been learned, and to sound out words that are new. In addition, these two processors can work together to segment the sounds in words when spelling and writing.

- This is the first time the child has seen the word *apples* in print. What does s/he need to do to read the word *apples* correctly?
  - In our example, the student uses her/his knowledge of sounds of the letters (phon-
logical processor/ sounds + orthographic processor /letters) , so she can sound out the word:

- Sounds: /a/ /p/ /Ə/ /l/ /s/ or syllables /ap/ /pƏls/
- She can read the word apples.

Next, the meaning processor is used to understand the meaning of words. This processor is used to access the meanings of words, information that is stored in the brain. Word meanings are stored by categories and/or by related meanings. This processor also helps us remember the meaningful parts of words (morphemes) and helps us read and understand longer words (e.g. port can be used to say/read/write words such as portfolio, report, import).

- Using the meaning processor:
  - She hears the –s at the end of the word (-s is a morpheme), so she knows the story is about more than one apple (-s means more than one).
  - In the book, it matters in what part of the sentence the word “apples” is written.
    - Apples are red.
    - His cheeks are red like apples.
    - She knows that red is a color and that means his cheeks are red.

Finally, the context processor is used to access information that we have about our Mother Tongue, the experiences we have (prior knowledge), and what we know about the world around us.

- She has been to the market with her/his brothers and sisters and has bought apples. (Prior knowledge). S/he knows what they look like and how they taste.
  - She uses the context and meaning processors to understand the sentence.
  - She knows the meaning of the word apple and that one sentence is describing the apple. The other sentence is describing the color of the boy’s cheeks. Both mean the color red.
    - The sentence she is reading is, “His cheeks are red like apples.”
  - She knows the sentence is telling the color of the boy’s cheek.
  - All of these processors work together to help us to speak, read, and write. For example, when a student reads a passage and comes to a word she does not know, the orthographic processor is activated. This processor retrieves the shapes of the letters in the word apples. The phonological processor helps by providing information about the sounds in the word, making it possible for the student to read the word Sounds: Sounds: /a/ /p/ /Ə/ /l/ /s/ or syllables
    - /ap/ /pƏls/

The student then is able to access meanings for the word and select a meaning (e.g. a red fruit). As the student reads the sentence, the meaning processor confirms that the word is correct and that the meaning, for the word, is correct.

We can look at a diagram (Fig. 2) of the left side of the brain. We can see how we use the left part of the brain to use information needed for reading and writing (Honig, Diamond, & Gutlohn, 2006).
ACTIVITY 6: INDEPENDENT WORK AND PAIR WORK

Write a sentence in Mother Tongue that has a word with more than one meaning, like the word present in English. Fill in the blanks below to show how the brain processes information to read the word and know what the word means.

1) The ____________ processor identifies the sounds of the word.
2) The ____________ processor identifies the letters of the word.
3) The ____________ processor identifies the different meanings for the word.
4) The ____________ processor uses the sentence, and or passage, to identify the right meaning for the word.

1.5 OVERVIEW OF THE FIVE AREAS OF READING

This section gives an overview of the five components of reading instruction which are important for students to become strong readers. This is an introduction to the five areas; they will be discussed more thoroughly in subsequent chapters. These areas are:

- Phonological Awareness
- Graphophonemic Awareness and Spelling
- Reading Fluency
Cognitive Development and Literacy Skills

• Oral Language and Vocabulary, and
• Listening and Reading Comprehension

1.5.1 PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS

Phonological awareness is the ability to hear, identify, and manipulate the sounds of language. It is an oral skill and is the child's ability to hear and be aware of sounds, use the sounds to say words, and use the sounds to make new words. For both Latin scripts and fidels, the skills include working with words and syllables. For the Latin scripts, this skill also includes working with individual sounds, called phonemes. This skill is necessary for linking sounds to letters/fidels, and supports reading and spelling. Phonological awareness can be developed through working orally with sentences, words, syllables, as well as rimes and phonemes. There are no letters/fidels used when teaching phonological awareness.

1.5.2. GRAPHOPHONEMIC AWARENESS AND SPELLING

Graphophonemic awareness is the ability to link letters/fidels with their sounds. Children learn that there are relationships between sounds/fidels. They use this information to read and spell words. The words decoding, or word attack skills, are often used to identify the skills students use to figure out new words. Examples of decoding/word attack skills used in graphophonemic awareness include:

Blending, or decoding (sounding out), which helps students read unfamiliar words. The sounds for the fidels ꠪ /አ /ት can be blended to say the word ꠪አት.

Give an example for the specific mother tongue.

The sounds /m/ /a/ /t/, can be blended to say the word mat.

More complex skills include blending word parts called morphemes. Morphemes are the smallest unit of meaning in words. For example, the word farmer has two morphemes: farm and er. The morpheme er is added to the morpheme farm. This indicates that the word farmer now means a person who farms.

The word football is a compound word that has two morphemes: foot and ball.

NOTE: Examples from the grade 1 primary mother tongue materials can be used for decoding and blending. The Grade 3 and 4 materials will have examples of morphemes.

1.5.3 READING FLUENCY

Reading fluency is the ability to read with comprehension, accuracy, speed, and expression (Armbruster, Lehr, & Osborn, 2001). A fluent reader is one who reads at an appropriate speed, with accuracy (words read correctly), and with expression. Some people think that reading fluency is reading with accuracy and speed, and do not read with expression. However, just because a person reads accurately and quickly it does not mean that she is a fluent reader.

Fluency is important because if a child is not reading quickly enough, s/he will not be able to comprehend what is read. Children who read fluently can read automatically; their brains can focus on the meaning of...
the text rather than decoding and blending. Some children are able to read words quickly and accurately, but can’t retell what was read.

A child needs to work on reading fluency beginning in the early grades. Learning to recognize the letters is one way to begin to build fluency. Children begin learning the building blocks needed for reading fluency (e.g. phonological awareness, vocabulary), before entering school. There is a gradual pattern of development across the early grades.

1.5.4 ORAL LANGUAGE AND VOCABULARY

Early in life, young children begin to hear and use language and oral vocabulary. This skill is used throughout life. Languages across the world consist of a similar set of foundational oral language skills. These basic oral language skills support the child’s ability to listen to and to speak and to learn to read and write in the mother tongue language. Early oral language skills have shown to predict a child’s later reading success (Kadervaek, 2007). In the new Mother Tongue Primary Grades Curriculum, children engage in a variety of classroom speaking and listening activities.

Children must use oral language to build language skills (Stanovich & Stanovich, 1999).

Vocabulary is the knowledge of words and word meanings in a language. Vocabulary is important in learning to read and to comprehend text (National Reading Panel, 2000). Vocabulary knowledge is more than using the words in a sentence (Honig et al., 2006). It is a complex process that involves different factors: students’ prior knowledge, their skills in using context, their knowledge of how language works (particularly their mother tongue), and their general cognitive ability.

Word knowledge involves more than learning definitions (Tompkins, 2003). There are many ways a child learns about words. In school, they learn concepts and word meanings (e.g. the word cow means an animal on a farm; one concept is that a cow is one type of farm animal), and how to organize concepts into categories. Cow can be categorized as an animal that gives us food and milk, as a farm animal, etc. They also learn that some words have multiple meanings (e.g. the word run can mean many things: I will run in a race next week. The streams run down the hill).

One word can be used in more than one way, with different definitions and uses for the same word. Morphemic analysis is using affixes to unlock many multisyllabic words. For example, the word reselected can be broken into three morphemes, each with a meaning:

- re – to do again
- select – to identify, choose
- -ed – already happened

This makes it possible to figure out the meaning of the word reselected in the sentence: Yesterday, they reselected the team members for the soccer team.

With so many skills needed to learn words, building a strong vocabulary takes time. In fact, research suggests it may take as many as twelve times hearing and using a word for children to know a word well enough to improve their reading comprehension (Biemiller, 1999). Students who have a small vocabulary will have a difficult time comprehending what is being read even though they may be able to read/decode words. If the student does not know what the word means, s/he will have trouble in comprehending the sentence and the passage.
ACTIVITY 7: REFLECTION

After you have fully reviewed this section and completed the previous activities, answer to the following questions for further reflection and application to the classroom.

With a partner, discuss the following questions:

A) Why is it important for a child to know and be able to use many words?

B) Why is it important for a teacher to know and be able to use many words?

C) Why do we say that word knowledge is more than just learning definitions?

1.5.5 LISTENING AND READING COMPREHENSION

Listening comprehension is a basic skill for children to be able to understand what they hear and remember, and to be able to discuss what they have heard (Armbruster et al., 2001). Listening comprehension begins with a child’s understanding of family and written stories and other passages that have been read aloud.

Reading comprehension is about understanding what one has read and comprehension the goal of reading. Comprehension is constructing meaning by (a) using prior knowledge about the topic, (b) reading the information and making sense of what is being read, (c) identifying the main idea and details, and (d) making inferences. As noted in reading fluency, students have to be able to read quickly enough in order to comprehend. However, that does not mean that we should not teach comprehension from the beginning of reading development. At first, comprehension will focus on texts that the teacher reads to the children or that they read together.

Over time, as children can read for themselves, they will apply comprehension strategies to help understand what they read independently.

Comprehension is much more than checking if a student understands a story or text. Comprehension is also about teaching students strategies to check their own comprehension (metacognition). The teacher will not always be present, and so students have to be able to do this on their own.

1.6 CHARACTERISTICS OF GOOD READERS

ACTIVITY 8: INDIVIDUAL WORK AND GROUP DISCUSSION

Preview the next section and complete this activity.

Think about what helps you when you are reading. For example, when you read the title of a passage, do you use what you know about the topic to predict what the passage will be about? Complete the chart
below by writing what strategies you use when reading. You can add circles. When everyone at your table has completed the chart, discuss in class.

The next table explains what we know good and weak readers do before/during/after reading.

**Table 3 - GOOD AND WEAK READERS DO BEFORE/DURING/AFTER READING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phases</th>
<th>Characteristics of Good Readers</th>
<th>Characteristics of Weak Readers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Before | • Think about what they know about the topic  
• Look at the headings and illustrations to get an idea of what will be read  
• Set a purpose for reading | • Begin reading without thinking about the topic and what they know, or use the wrong information  
• Do not set a purpose for reading  
• Lose interest and motivation |
| During | • Monitor how they are reading and know when not understanding  
• Uses strategies to help understand  
• Uses strategies to understand new words  
• Uses text structure (e.g. story elements, cause and effect, etc.) | • Read without stopping or thinking about what is being read  
• Instead of decoding, guesses at words using the context  
• Not reading fluently  
• Lack, or does not use, strategies; or uses the wrong strategy  
• Don’t understand differences in text structure  
• Have trouble making inferences |
Cognitive Development and Literacy Skills

### ACTIVITY 9: REFLECTION

A) What did you learn about the strategies that good readers use when reading?

B) Revisit your chart of reading strategies you use. Compare it with the characteristics of good readers and weak readers.

C) After reading the characteristics of good readers, are there other strategies that you use?

D) Based on answers you gave above, how do you evaluate your strategies to be a good reader?

E) As a teacher, how can you help children become good readers?

### 1.7. APPROACHES USED TO TEACH READING

There are two main theoretical approaches to teaching reading: Whole Language and Skills-Based.

#### 1.7.1. WHOLE LANGUAGE (ALSO CALLED LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE)

- Expects child to learn reading as *naturally* as in language development.
- Uses child’s oral language and word knowledge for reading.
- Uses child’s oral language as basis for spelling instruction.
- Teaches *whole words* in word families.
- Children learn to read by reading and re-reading big books together with the teacher and then the teacher gradually withdraws prompts so a child appears to be reading that book.
- Students are not explicitly taught that there is a relationship between letters and sounds.

#### 1.7.2. SKILL BASED (ALSO CALLED THE PHONICS APPROACH)

The skills based approach is well supported by research for effective instruction in beginning reading (Honig et al., 2006). It can be applied in the teaching of emergent/early readers. This approach has been found to be the most effective in teaching reading and can help reduce the number of children struggling in learning to read. It also helps students with special needs.

According to this approach, reading:

- Must be explicitly taught – the teacher models new skills and practices the new skill(s) with the students before the students are expected to use them independently, on their own.
- Must be systematically organized and sequenced – there is a logical order and progression to teaching reading that is tied to the phases discussed in this chapter.
- Must include learning how to blend sounds together.
Can be adapted to the needs of individual students (Armbruster et al., 2001).

In addition to the above approaches, the ‘Multi-Sensory Approach’ works well for children with special needs. Reading instruction should consider those students who have special needs. This approach can be used with either the Whole Language or Skills-Based approaches. This approach is typically called VAKT (visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile). It uses all possible senses using strategies such as tracing, saying, listening and looking.

The new primary Mother Tongue reading materials for grades 1-4 and 5-8 use a skills-based approach to teaching and a direct instruction method to teach reading skills referred to as the I Do /We Do/You Do instructional method. Using this approach:

The teacher models/shows the students how to use the new skill
(I Do)

The teacher and the students then practice the skill together
(We Do)

The teacher then has the students to practice on their own
(You Do)

In the explicit/direct instruction model, the teacher gives feedback and provides many times for students to practice. The students are then reminded when to use the strategy. This is a gradual release model in that the teacher first teaches the skill and then, when the students are able to use the skill, they use on their own. This is called scaffolding: the teacher provides a lot of support when the child is learning the skill (I Do/We Do) and removes the support as the student is able to complete the task independently (You Do). This teaching strategy helps struggling readers make dramatic gains in reading skills (Gunning, 2013).

ACTIVITY 10: CLASS DEBATE

Identify 10 students to prepare a presentation about the approaches used to teach reading:

1) 5 will provide a presentation about whole language: what is it? Why should teachers use it?
2) 5 will provide a presentation about skills based: what is it? Why is it important?
3) As a starter for developing the presentation, the following information is provided:
   A) It is important to use a balanced reading program that meets the needs of all children. Also, it is important to practice reading skills with connected reading that is interesting and engaging.
   B) If explicit instruction of basic skills is not provided, up to 25% of children will continue to struggle to read and comprehend throughout the school years. Many children may be labelled with a disability because the teacher’s reading instruction did not match their needs.
4) Each team will present their information and debate the value of their approach to teach reading.

5) The class will then debate the value of each.

Video Title: Explicit Instruction

- Discuss and practice the script.

Note: The primary teaching materials use the I/We/You Do model, especially for Phonological Awareness and Graphophonemic Awareness.

1.8. WRITING DEVELOPMENT

Supporting children as they learn to write is helpful for their writing development. The teachers should facilitate children’s learning by giving purposeful instruction and then the children should practice what is intended (Tompkins, 2003). Other scholars also identify five levels of support. These are modeled writing, shared writing, interactive writing, guided writing and independent writing (Fountas and Pinnell, 1996). Giving clear direction for students in order to support their writing related with development of children’s writing skills. Refer one reference material on the five levels of support and organize a one page note about them.
CHAPTER 1: SUMMARY

In this chapter, cognitive development and reading is addressed. Cognitive development is a field of study that focuses on a child’s development. It is the theory we use to discuss the ability to think and understand.

Learning to read is a developmental process. Children do not begin to read at the same age. They develop a basic oral vocabulary and understand the alphabetic principle before they begin to read.

The five cognitive development phases in reading (i.e., awareness and exploration phase, experimental reading and writing phase, early learning reading and writing phase, transitional reading and writing phase, and competent reading and writing phase) have been discussed clearly.

The brain plays a vital role in storing and using information needed for reading development. There are four systems in the brain that work together to process information: 1. the phonological processor; 2. orthographic processor; 3. meaning processor; and 4. context processor. During early reading, when children learn to read, they go through the different phases of word recognition. These are the pre-alphabetic phase, partial alphabetic phase, full alphabetic phase, and consolidated alphabetic phase. As children move through each phase, their knowledge of words and their meanings increase dramatically.

This chapter has also given an overview of the five core areas of reading: phonological awareness is the ability to hear, identify and manipulate the sounds of language; graphophonemic awareness is the ability to link letters/sounds with sounds; reading fluency is the ability to read with comprehension, accuracy, speed and expression; oral language and vocabulary is the knowledge of words and meanings; and comprehension is the understanding what one has read. These areas will be discussed further in subsequent chapters.

Different approaches to teaching reading are also discussed. There are a number of approaches to teaching reading and each approach has advantages and disadvantages and may be combined with other approaches and/or adapted. There are two main theoretical approaches to teaching reading, namely, the ‘whole language’ approach and the ‘skills-based’ approach. The ‘whole language’ approach is a holistic philosophy for teaching literacy, while the ‘skills-based’ approach teaches the basic skills (e.g. blending, segmenting) and how to use these skills to read words, sentences, etc.

According to research, no single approach to teaching reading gives the best results. A combination is probably best. For many students learning to read, and for students with special needs, an explicit direct approach has been most successful when teaching new skills. However, for proficient readers, other approaches have been found most successful. It is important to provide a balance in using teaching approaches. Teachers should use their professional judgment and know how to adapt programs to fit the needs of their students. Using a balanced approach also provides all students instruction in learning the skills needed to read and in reading engaging, connected text.

The characteristics of good readers have been identified in order to explain what we know good and weak readers do before, during, and after reading. Finally, writing development is discussed.
### CHAPTER 1: SELF-ASSESSMENT

Below are self-assessment statements. Copy them into your exercise book and put a check-mark ✓ in the column that matches your answer, indicating if you agree or disagree with the statement on the left. Make sure that you read again those sections related to the statements that you rated as “disagree.”

**Table 4 - CHAPTER 1 SELF-ASSESSMENT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATEMENTS</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I can correctly define cognitive development.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I can explain the relation between cognitive development and reading.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I can explain the phases of cognitive development in reading.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I can describe how the brain processes information during reading and speaking.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I can mention the phases of word recognition.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I understand phonological awareness is an oral skill: no letters or words are used.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I can explain graphophonemic awareness and its relationship in reading new words.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I recognize fluency is more than speed of reading words or words in a sentence or paragraph.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I can explain the relationship between listening comprehension skill and reading comprehension.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I can strongly discuss the importance of helping students to develop oral reading fluency and silent reading fluency.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I understand the differences and similarities of the two major approaches of reading instructions.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I can differentiate the characteristics of good and poor readers.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I can explain parts of the brain that are involved in the process of reading and writing.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I can explain the importance of teachers’ knowledge of reading development.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I can explain the five types of support in writing development.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 2: EARLY LITERACY SKILLS

TIME ALLOCATED FOR THIS CHAPTER = 6 HOURS

OUTLINE OF CONTENTS

2.1 Print Concepts

2.2 Phonological Awareness

2.3 Home Literacy Environment

INTRODUCTION

The foundation of all learning is based on the development of oral language and beginning literacy skills. Literacy development begins well before children enter school and can accelerate in an early childhood classroom setting. As would-be teachers, you often hear about the importance of literacy development. Language teachers must be adequately prepared to teach important phonological awareness skills and must have a basic understanding of the structure of their language. Research indicates that the beginning literacy skills needed for later success in reading are: oral language skills, phonological awareness, and print awareness (concepts) (Burns, Griffin, & Snow, 1999). This chapter introduces two of the components of early literacy skills: print concepts and phonological awareness and also discusses home literacy environment.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

At the end of this chapter, student teachers will be able to:

- Identify elements of print concepts (author, title, cover, back, etc.).
- Demonstrate print concepts (e.g. hold a book and turn pages correctly).
- Discuss strategies used to help children hear, identify, and manipulate Fidel sounds in spoken words and the individual Fidels in spoken words
- Summarize the components of phonological awareness and its developmental progressions
- Discuss the importance of home literacy environment.
- State ways to support home literacy.

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

- Primary school (1-8) MT student textbooks and syllabi
- Chapter references
- Audio-visual materials
TEACHING AND LEARNING TECHNIQUES

- Interactive lecture – present and discuss topics based on the language and educational background of the students.
- Task based approach – allow students to initiate ideas, design strategies and reach their own solutions.
- Independent study- encourages students to question, read, etc. and present solutions.
- Peer and group work

ASSESSMENT TECHNIQUES

- Oral questions and answers
- Individual work, pair work, and group work
- Reflection
- Class work and homework
- Quiz/test
- Exams (mid and final)
- Classroom participation

2.1. PRINT CONCEPTS

ACTIVITY 1: THINK-PAIR-SHARE

First, individually think about the following questions. Next, sit in pairs and discuss. Finally, pick one person from each pair to share ideas with the class.

A) When you first pick up a book to read what do you do? List based on the example given below:

- Handle the book properly.
- Look over the title.

Print Concepts is knowing about the forms and the functions of print; it is a child’s earliest introduction to literacy (Gunn, Simmons, & Kameenui, 1998). This is an umbrella term that includes several concepts about printed text. Students need to know these concepts in order to learn to read. Some of the concepts relate to the features of written language, while others relate to directionality; the way that written text is organized (Honig, Diamond, & Gutlohn, 2000). Knowledge of print concepts is fundamental to beginning reading. Although some students enter school with a good understanding of these concepts, other students may not. However, most Ethiopian children have no access to kindergarten. Therefore, at the beginning of grade one, special attention should be given to instruction and practice in the key print concepts.

Let’s read on to learn about Concepts of Print. Below are some of the key concepts about print discussed by Honig et al. (2000) and from the primary syllabus (MOE, 2013).
Table 5 - CONCEPTS OF PRINT

Some of the key concepts about print that our beginner readers need to develop are listed below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function of print</th>
<th>Conventions of print</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Print carries a message (meaning).</td>
<td>• Print is print no matter in what form it appears.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Print can be used for different purposes.</td>
<td>• Printed words are made up of fidels (concept of words)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Print corresponds to speech, word for word.</td>
<td>• Printed words are separated by spaces (word boundaries).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Sentences in print are made up of separate words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Sentences end with punctuation marks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Text is read from left to right with a return sweep to the next line.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Lines of text are read from top to bottom of the page.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• When one page of a text is read, the story continues on the following page.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Book conventions</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• A book has a front cover and a back cover.</td>
<td>• A book has a title and a title page.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• A book is held right side up.</td>
<td>• A book has an author; some books have pictures created by an illustrator.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• A book has a title and a title page.</td>
<td>• A book has pages. The left page of a book is read before the right page.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• A book has pages. The left page of a book is read before the right page.</td>
<td>• Pages are turned one at a time in a sequence from front to back.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ACTIVITY 2: Exploring concepts taught using written materials

Challenge: You are a Grade 1 teacher and you are preparing a read-aloud lesson. You are teaching children about the parts of a book (Concepts of Print). Discuss with your partners what should be taught and complete the following chart. The first concept has been listed for you.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concepts of Print</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Title of the textbook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ACTIVITY 3

Using the Grade 1, primary MT reading materials, teach the following print concepts.

a) use vocabulary related to book parts (title, page, period)
b) understand the direction of print by pointing: left/right, top/bottom

With a table partner, practice with a page from the primary text, using the following information. Say, “Today, I am going to read a story. The title of this story is ከሆያና ጅብ. I am going to read this page of the story.” (Page 125) Read the first two lines slowly, pointing to each word as you read, and sweep to the second line. Point to the period (in Saba script::) and say “This is a stop mark, it tells you to stop, or pause. You have come to the end of a sentence.” Now ask your partner to point to the title, to a word, to a sentence.

2.2. PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS

Phonological awareness is a term used to explain the child’s awareness of sound(s) /Fidel structure. In addition to Fidel sound knowledge, phonological awareness activities can involve work with rhymes, words, and onset and rimes. Understanding that spoken language is made up of sounds is hard for many students to learn. Research across many countries indicate that children with weak phonological awareness fail to learn to read (Cardoso-Martins, 1995; Cossu, Shankweiler, Liberman, Tola, & Katz, 1998; Elkonin, 1973; Lundberg, Olofsson & Wall, 1980; Manrique & Gramingna; 1984). Dear student teachers, in the primary MT text books and teacher’s manual, the word syllable is used to describe the Fidel sounds.

Phonological awareness is taught in the primary text at three developmental levels: word, onset-rime, and Fidel sound(s). As learners progress through the levels, they learn to blend, segment, and manipulate Fidel sound(s). Phonological awareness helps students learn to pay attention to the way language sounds in addition to what it means.

ACTIVITY 4: THINK-PAIR-SHARE

A) Mention some of the Fidel sounds in your language.

B) Why is it important to know the Fidel sounds of your language?

C) What are the Fidel sounds in the word ‘school’?

D) What would be the challenge in listening and recognizing sounds/Fidel in words?
Phonological awareness is the ability to hear, distinguish, produce, and work with the Fidel sounds in words and sentences. It is an oral skill that children need to learn in order to read.

It is also important to work on this skill when learning the MT language (Amharic or Tigrigna). (Figure 1) shows the overall developmental progression that children go through when learning about their mother tongue.

At the earlier stages, children move from hearing, to identifying, to manipulating words, syllables, and language sounds (for some languages).

**HEARING**
- The child can hear if two words rhyme (e.g. fat and cat rhyme)
- The child can tell if two words do not rhyme (fat and fan)

**IDENTIFYING**
- The child can tell if two words do/do not begin with the same Fidel sound.
  - Do cat and can begin with the same Fidel sound? Do cat and fat begin with the same Fidel sound?
- The child can tell what Fidel sound is at the beginning of a word, or at the end of the word, and in the middle of the word.

**MANIPULATING**
- The child can manipulate Fidels’ sounds to make a new word (i.e. pot/top).
Figure 5 shows the more specific progression of skills that children and young students go through when learning about the sound of their language. As they learn more about the mother tongue, they gain a deeper understand of the structure of their language and how to link syllable & sound (s) with fidel(s) (Chapter 3 discusses this link). Children begin by recognizing whole words and then begin to gain an understanding of the parts of words (i.e syllables).

Phonological Awareness begins at the rhyming level and progresses through fidel sounds manipulating.

1. **Rhyming**
   - At this level students begin activities including singing songs and hearing poems that rhyme.

2. **Word Segmentation**
   - Children able to segment word parts. The students identify how many words are in spoken sentence (i.e. The girl ate an apple. The students clap for each word and say there are five words in the sentence)

3. **Identifying Initial/final/medial Fidel sounds**
   - A) Children are able to first identify the sound at the beginning of a word.
   - B) At this level, the teacher asks questions such as “what is the first sound in the word man?”
   - C) When the child is able to independently identify the first sound in a word, the activity moves to identifying the last sound in the word, and then to the middle sound in the word.
   - D) It is important that the children have the concepts of the meaning of the words *first, last,* and *middle* to be able to understand the task.

Note: Developmentally, children identify the initial sound, then the final sound. The middle sound is the hardest and is the last part of a word that is identified.
4. Fidel/Syllable Blending and Segmenting

The next level, in the progression of skills, is the ability to blend and segment Fidel sound(s)

A) The easier activity is Fidel sound blending. For example: the teacher asks the students to blend the Fidel sounds /m/ /a/ /n/ and to say the word man. This activity is critical, especially for the weaker readers. This skill supports the ability to decode unknown words when reading. Give examples from Tigrigna and Amharic primary school MT textbooks during adaptation.

B) The harder activity is Fidel sound segmenting. For example: The teacher asks the students to say the sounds in the word man: /m/ /a/ /n/. This activity supports the ability to spell and write words.

5. Manipulating Fidel sounds

A) The teacher asks the students to say the word pan. She then asks the students to change the /p/ sound to /f/ and asks what the new word is (fan).

B) Then, the teacher asks the students to change the sound /n/ to /t/ to make the word fat.

Let’s look at two videos. In the first video, the students are learning to blend sounds to say words. In the second video, the students are learning to segment the sounds in a word. Notice that the teacher is using the I Do/ We Do/ You Do method to teach these skills.

![Video Title: Fidel Sound Blending](image1.jpg)

![Video Title: Fidel Sound Segmenting](image2.jpg)

The table below shows the continuum of phonological awareness skills (Honig, Diamond, & Gutlohn, 2008).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Skills name</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level 1: ONSET-RIME</td>
<td>Recognizing rhyme</td>
<td>Given a pair of words, student determines whether they rhyme.</td>
<td>Do these two words rhyme: <em>ham</em>, <em>jam</em>? (yes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Generating rhyme</td>
<td>Given a word, student says a word that rhymes.</td>
<td>Tell me a word that rhymes with <em>nut</em>. (cut)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Categorization</td>
<td>Given a set of three or four words, student finds the word that does not fit the pattern.</td>
<td>Which word does not belong: <em>mat</em>, <em>sun</em>, <em>cat</em>, <em>fat</em>? (sun)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 2: WORD</td>
<td>Sentence segmentation</td>
<td>Given a sentence or phrase, student claps one time for every word in the sentence.</td>
<td>clap one time for every word you hear in the sentence: <em>I like pizza</em>. (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level</td>
<td>Skills name</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
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<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 3: FIDEL</td>
<td>Blending</td>
<td>Given a word separated into Fidel sound, student combines the sounds to form the whole word.</td>
<td>What word is /b/ /i/ /g/? (big)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Segmenting</td>
<td>Given a whole word, student separates the word into individual Fidel sound and says each sound.</td>
<td>How many sounds in big? Can you say them sound by sound? (/b/ /i/ /g/) How many sounds? (three)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Isolation</td>
<td>Given a word, student recognizes individual sounds in the word.</td>
<td>What is the first sound in van? (/v/) What is the last sound in van? (/n/) What is the medial sound in van?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Identification</td>
<td>Given a word, student selects the word that has common sounds from a set of three or four different words.</td>
<td>Which word has the same first sound as car: fan, corn, or map? (corn)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Categorization</td>
<td>Given a set of three or four words, student recognizes the word that has the “odd” sound.</td>
<td>Which word does not belong: bus, ball, mouse? (mouse)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Addition</td>
<td>Given a word, student makes a new word by adding a Fidel sound.</td>
<td>What word do you have if you add /s/ to the beginning of park? (spark) Note= initial, medial and end</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Substitution</td>
<td>Given a word, student makes a new word by replacing one phoneme for another.</td>
<td>The word is rug. Change /g/ to /n/. What is the new word? (run) Note= initial, end, medial</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ACTIVITY 5

Do the following activity with your instructor.

(Remember this is an oral activity—no letters or words are written or seen)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. What is the first sound in van?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. What is the last sound in van?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Which pair of words rhymes? (ham-jam, rice-roll, nut-cut)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. What sound is the same in fix, fall, and fun?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Which word doesn’t belong? Bus, bun, rug?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. When I say the sounds /c/ /a/ /t/, what is the word?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7. How many sounds are in grab?

8. What is smile without the /s/?

9. What word do you have if you add /s/ to the beginning of park?

10. The word is bug. Change /g/ to /n/. What’s the new word?

11. Can you clap the word parts in the word teacher? How many word parts are in teacher?

ACTIVITY 6: Categorize the above questions based on the phonological awareness skill that is discussed.

Using the activities above, match each activity to the corresponding term below and put the number of the activity by that term. The first one has been done for you.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phonological Awareness Terms</th>
<th>Number of question of activity 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Fidel sound substitution</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Fidel sound addition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Fidel segmentation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Fidel sound blending</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Fidel sound isolation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Fidel sound deletion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Fidel sound identification</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Fidel sound categorization</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Segmentation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Rhyme recognition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Fidel sound manipulation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ACTIVITY 7: REFLECTION ACTIVITY

First discuss in groups, and then reflect with the class.

A) Why should you learn about phonological awareness?

B) Why is it important for children to have phonological awareness?

C) Which level of the phonological awareness skills will be difficult for students to learn? Why?

D) What challenges will a language teacher face in teaching phonological awareness?

E) What are some possible solutions to those challenges?

Phonological awareness instruction helps children learn to read. It improves children’s ability to read new words. It also improves their reading comprehension. Phonological awareness instruction
primarily aids reading comprehension through its influence on word reading. For children to understand what they read, they must be able to read words quickly and accurately. Phonological awareness instruction also helps children learn to spell. Children who have phonological awareness understand that Fidels sounds are related in a predictable way. Thus, they are able to relate the Fidel sounds as they spell words.

Phonological awareness can be taught:

- Most students can acquire the skills to be phonologically aware.
- Many students quickly acquire this skill with formal instruction.
- Phonological awareness is best taught in combination with graphophonemic awareness (Fidel / Fidel sound correspondence). You will find both types of lessons in the primary grade 1 texts.
- Phonological awareness should be part of initial instruction in the daily reading lesson for beginning readers.
- Phonological awareness should not be the entire reading program.
- Phonological awareness should be taught using explicit instruction.
- Teacher models the skill, the students practice with her, and when fluent, the students demonstrate the skill independently (Armbruster, Lehr, & Osborn, 2001).

ACTIVITY 8: YOU FIRST!

A) How many Fidels are there in your Mother Tongue?
B) Turn to your partner and name as many Fidels as you can. You have 2 minutes. Ready? Go!
C) Now, your partner will name as many as s/he can in 2 minutes.

Languages with Saba scripts are made up of Fidels. Each Fidel stands for one or more sounds. Some letters are called consonants. These Fidels almost always stand for a single sound and that sound is almost always the same. Other Fidels are called vowels. Vowels can change the sound of the consonants. There are also Fidels that have a consonant and a vowel sound.

2.3. HOME LITERACY ENVIRONMENT

ACTIVITY 9: Assessing your home environment

A) Do any of your family members read at home?
B) Are books available in your home? How many books do you have?
C) How do you spend your days - watching films, playing games, listening to the radio, or on the cell phone and texting friends?

Some of you may have said that there are not many books in your home. That would be true since most of our family members are from rural areas of Ethiopia and do not have much access to books. However, the home environment plays an important role in the development of reading skills.

First read the following scenario. Then reflect on the question that follows.

*Rahimet and Kassa are grade one students learning in the same classroom. They are learning in one of the government schools. When Rahimet's parents are at home, they always read books and...*
other written materials. They often give time for their daughter to read stories. They tell her to not spend much time watching films and playing games. Rahimet always reads the alphabet and words. When she reads, she always tries to write letters and words on a paper. In their home, there are a number of books and paper for writing. However, Kassa’s parents are not giving attention to him. In his home, there are a few books, since his brother and his sister are both students. But they don’t want to read. They spend most of their time watching films, playing games and listening when their parents talk about any life issues. In the first semester, Rahimet stood first while Kassa stood 45th among 50 students.

ACTIVITY 10: REFLECTION

Discuss in groups and reflect with the class.

A) What is your evaluation of the two home environments (Rahimet’s and Kassa’s)?

B) What are the contributing factors for the two students’ performance differences?

C) What do you suggest to make home environment of students favorable for literacy skills development?

The purpose of this activity is to highlight some of the factors related to early literacy development. Remember that some students may not have access to literacy materials. Parents want their children to go to school and to learn to read. Each family situation is different. It is our job as teachers to know that children enter school with different levels of literacy knowledge and skills. We can work together with families to make a difference in a child’s life. Here are a few simple things that parents can do to create a good reading environment (Burns, Griffin, & Snow, 1999).

1. CREATING A READING ENVIRONMENT AT HOME

Research has shown that by talking, singing, and reading to children, parents are turning on brain cells that are essential for a healthy child. Parents can build reading skills by interacting with their children. Parents and other family members need to be involved in children’s reading throughout their school years. Schools recognize the importance of parental involvement in students’ progress and are encouraging parents to play a more active role.

2. MAKE READING MATERIALS AVAILABLE, BOTH IN THE HOME AND IN THE COMMUNITY

To create a good reading environment, start with a supply of reading materials: newspapers, magazines, and books. It doesn’t matter if they are owned or borrowed, new or used. What’s important is that reading materials are a part of your home, community and everyday life. Set aside a spot in your home for a family library. You don’t need much space: a corner of a room with a bookshelf, comfortable furniture, and adequate lighting will do. In choosing materials, remember that variety counts. Instead of focusing on the number of books, keep in mind the interests of each family member. Also, resources in the community may be available (e.g., a library, materials used at church or mosque, etc.)

3. BE READING ROLE MODEL

Most children want to be like their parents. Their lifelong habits of reading start to form at the earliest ages, often by mimicking older members of the family. If they see you reading daily, both for function and
for pleasure, they will more likely want to become readers themselves. If children see parents visiting libraries and checking out books, giving and receiving books as gifts, and borrowing and loaning books with friends, they will know that their parents think reading is important.

4. READ ALOUD TO CHILDREN

Reading to children, even for a few minutes each day, prepares them to read and encourages a positive attitude toward reading. Children who are read to at home learn to read more easily, have a higher vocabulary, and are more likely to develop a love for reading compared to those children who are not read to on a regular basis, this cannot be done too early or too often.

5. ENCOURAGE PERSONAL LIBRARIES

Children often want their own place to keep books that have special meaning for them. By encouraging children to set aside their personal favorites, you are helping them express their affection and respect for books.

Here are some tips for helping children set up collections:

- Find a special place for books. If your child’s room doesn’t have a bookshelf or bookcase, use a box, basket, or other sturdy container. Plastic stacking cubes work well.
- As often as possible, let your children choose the books they want to add to their collection.
- Take your children to the library regularly.
- Give your children books gifts.
- Share what you write with your children.
- Help your children see that there is a purpose for both reading and writing.
- Show and read to them lists made for buying supplies at the stores.
- Let your child suggest items to buy and let him/her see you writing.
- Show and read letters and cards you write.
- Read print that is on signs and buildings.
- Read print that is on supplies (e.g. injera, rice, etc.)

6. LIMIT TELEVISION, COMPUTERS, AND VIDEO GAMES

Computers, television, games are used widely by children for schoolwork and to obtain information, but whether home computers and television can make children “smarter” remains an open question. Nevertheless, playing specific computer games, for example, has been found to have immediate positive effect on specific cognitive skills and use of home computers has been linked to mildly positive effect on academic performance (Subrahmanyan, Kraut, Greenfield, & Gross, 2000).

For generations, education experts have been warning about the harmful effects of too much television. The rise in popularity of the Internet and computer and video games only adds to the din of distractions pulling children away from literary pursuits. While excellent educational programs and software exist, use of electronic media must be kept in check by parents. Limit children’s television and computer use to make time for other activities, such as reading. Try not to use television and computers as rewards for reading (or denying them as punishment for not reading).
CHAPTER 2: SUMMARY

This chapter has presented you with information about concepts of print, phonological awareness, alphabet knowledge, and the importance of creating a home literacy environment. Concepts of print is a series of skills that show an understanding of how print works. These are:

- Function of print
- Conventions of print
- Book conventions

Phonological awareness is the ability to notice, hear, identify and manipulate words and word parts including sound, words, onset, and rime. It is an oral skill and does not involve print (Armbruster, Lehr, & Osborn, 2001). Phonological awareness involves the ability to hear and to orally manipulate word parts. Phonological awareness activities, at both the word and syllable level, can be used for Fidel’s sound.

The concept of home literacy environment should be considered for the development of children’s reading skills. Practices which promote emergent literacy in the home include:

- Children’s books, magazines, newspapers, and other reading materials found in the home.
- Children see adults reading for their own information and pleasure.
- Some family member reads to the child regularly.
- Children are encouraged to ask questions and talk about stories that are read to them.
- Children have writing supplies readily available to them. Examples: markers, pencils, paper, scissors, and paste.
- Children see adults writing for real purposes, such as making a grocery list, texting, or writing a letter.
- Adults and older children point out words in the environment, such as those on food containers and restaurant signs.
- Adults and older children take the time to answer young children’s questions about reading and writing.
- Children see their name in print on their belongings and in the home.
- Adults and older children talk with young children about objects and events taking place in and out of the home.
CHAPTER 2: REVIEW QUESTIONS

1) Discuss in detail ‘print concepts’ by analyzing it based on the nature of your language.

2) Explain the phonological awareness continuum (from rhyming to Fidel manipulation) and provide your own examples for each of the components in the continuum. Make sure that your examples refer to the sound level of your language.

3) Which of the Fidel/letter sounds are most difficult to learn in your language? Based on the research evidence covered in this chapter, what have you learned that can be used to teach phonological awareness to students?

4) How does home literacy influence how children learn to read? Do students from rural areas have similar learning opportunities as those in the urban areas? How would you explain the difference, if any? What can primary school teachers do to make sure students (rural and urban) have equal opportunities to learn to read?
CHAPTER 2: SELF-ASSESSMENT

Below are self-assessment statements. Copy them into your exercise book and put a checkmark ✓ in one of the columns to indicate your answer. Answer “YES, NO or I’M NOT SURE” based on your level of competence.

Table 7 - CHAPTER 2 SELF-ASSESSMENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATEMENT</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>I’m not sure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 I can identify and demonstrate print concepts.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 I can state the developmental progression for teaching phonological awareness and why it is important to know the progression.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 I am able to state strategies used to help children hear and identify the sounds of Fidels.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 I can identify, and manipulate the Fidel sound in spoken words.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 I am able to associate Fidels with their corresponding sounds</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 I can list ways that support home literacy</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 I can explain the importance of home literacy environment</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 3: GRAPHOphonemic Awareness

Time allotted for this chapter = 6 hours

OUTLINE OF CONTENTS

3. Basics of Graphophonemic Awareness
   3.1 Concepts of Graphophonemic Awareness
   3.2 Graphophonemic Awareness Continuum
      3.2.1 Print Awareness
      3.2.2. Fidel Identification (symbol shape)
      3.2.3 Fidel- sound correspondence
      3.2.4 Decoding
      3.2.5 Encoding (Spelling/ Writing)
      3.2.6 Multisyllabic Word Reading
         3.2.6.1 Syllables
         3.2.6.2 Morphemes
      3.2.7 Morphemes

INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the basics of graphophonemic awareness. The chapter discusses the concept of graphophonemic awareness and its developmental continuum. A major concept of graphophonemic awareness is that a child can match graphemes (fidel/ syllable) with their corresponding sounds.

This unit also discusses that, as time goes by, children progress and move from identifying Fidel sounds to word decoding and reading multi-Fidel words. Consequently, they will be in a position to improve their reading competence. The other important issue that this unit discusses is that the graphophonemic awareness progression teaches Fidel knowledge, decoding and segmenting Fidels, and morphological awareness. In Fidel knowledge, special attention will be given for the beginning readers to figure out how printed words correspond to spoken words. At the more advanced level, children have to also learn that there are word parts that have meaning (morphemes) and can sound out complex or multisyllabic words, to write them and know the meaning of these words.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

After completing this chapter, student teachers will be able to:

- Explain Graphophonemic Awareness.
- Summarize the developmental continuum/stages of Graphophonemic Awareness.
- Discuss phonics as a way to teach students to read words
- Form words using morphemes.
- Discuss the importance of knowing morphological structure of words in developing reading fluency.
- Explain decoding and encoding
INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

- Primary school (1-8) MT textbooks and MT syllabi
- Unit references
- Audio-visual materials

TEACHING AND LEARNING TECHNIQUES

- Interactive lecture
- Task based approach
- Independent study
- Cooperative learning and peer learning
- Group discussion
- Modeling
- Direct instruction of new vocabularies

ASSESSMENT TECHNIQUES

- Oral questions and answers
- Individual, pair and group work
- Class work and homework
- Exams
- Classroom participation and reflection
- Test

3. BASICS OF GRAPHOPHONEMIC AWARENESS

3.1 CONCEPTS OF GRAPHOPHONEMIC AWARENESS

ACTIVITY 1: INDIVIDUAL WORK

Answer the following questions:

1) Do you remember the Fidel sounds of your language which you discussed in chapter two? If your answer is “yes”, can you say some of those sounds?

2) Can you write those sounds?

3) Is there any relationship between the sounds, that you said for question no 1, and their Symbols? Is the relationship one to one (one sound standing for one Fidel or symbol)?

4) Why do you think that it is important to teach Fidels and their corresponding sounds?

Graphophonemic Awareness is the ability to match graphemes (symbols or Fidels) to sounds. Graphemes are the way the oral language is represented in written language. The goal of graphophonemic instruction is to help children learn to connect Fidels to their sounds; understanding that there are systematic and predictable relationships between written Fidels and spoken sounds.
ACTIVITY 2: THINK-PAIR-SHARE

Answer the following questions by yourself and then discuss in pairs.

1) What problem(s) have you faced in reading new words in your Mother Tongue?
2) How can knowing about graphophonemic awareness help you when teaching beginning reading?

Graphophonemic awareness is important because:

- It enables students to decode (sound out) new words. This will help them become independent readers.
- It also enables students to segment the sounds in words. This supports spelling and writing, because students can link the sounds they hear in a word to the correct letters.

Thus, graphophonemic awareness can be developed by teaching individual Fidels and their sounds, as well as giving students practice blending (putting together) and segmenting (taking apart) the Fidels, syllables, or part of words.

Phonics instruction is the strategy used in the primary mother tongue (MT) textbook to teach students how to read new words. Teachers help children learn how to use the relationship between Fidels and their sounds to read and write (Honig, Diamond, and Gutlohn: 2000).

Suggestions for teaching phonics:

- Use systematic phonics instruction to teach a set of fidel-sound relationships, using a clearly defined sequence.
- Teach the most frequent fidel first.
- Rearrange similar fidels to avoid teaching them within a short period of time.
- Provide materials that give children repeated practice in using their knowledge of these relationships as they read and write.
- Use “read yourself” stories that contain a large number of words that are decodable using fidel-sound relationships children have learned and are learning.

ACTIVITY 3: THINK – PAIR – SHARE

Do you remember what happened when you first tried to read? How did you learn to read?

Graphophonemnic awareness is more than just knowing which Fidel goes with which sound(s). Beginning readers must also learn how to decode when reading a new word. They learn to say the sounds of individual Fidels and then blend those Fidels together to read the words. It is critical that children have a lot of practice in decoding and blending. When teaching children how to blend sounds to make words, it is important to use direct, explicit instruction (I do/we do/you do). Using this model, the teacher is providing scaffolding, or support, to the child as s/he learns to decode words. This means that the
necessary support is provided to the child and gradually reduced as the child is able to independently complete the task (gradual release). Research suggests that systematic and explicit Fidel sound instruction (phonics) is more effective than non-systematic or non-phonics instruction (Honig et al., 2006). A small child must first concentrate on Fidel sound correspondences, blending and segmenting the Fidels in a word. After a lot of practice, this becomes automatic and the child can recognize words in large units (morphemes). Children do it automatically without thinking about the steps. This is why giving children a lot of time to practice sounding out and blending words is important. The next step is that students begin to see patterns in words and to read the words in parts, called morphemes.

The box below shows an example of how a child decodes, uses sound and Fidels correspondences to read a new word.

I see the word man

I look at each Fidel, one by one
and say the sound each letter makes: /m/, /a/, /n/

(decoding)

I blend those sounds together: /m/-/a/- /n/
(first slowly, then more quickly) to read the word “man”

(blending/decoding)

ACTIVITY 4: Pair Work

Discuss the following question in pairs and reflect to the whole class.

A) Discuss the early literacy skills that you learned in chapter two of this module.

B) Do you think that teaching the sound(s) of a Fidel (phonological awareness) with its symbol (graphophonemic awareness) need to be integrated or separately taught? Why?

When children are first learning to read, decodable text should be used. In decodable text, most of the words can be read by blending the Fidel sounds to say the words. The words that the children cannot decode, with the sounds they have learned, are taught as sight words. This helps students use their new decoding skills and builds accuracy and fluency (Honig et al., 2006). In the course of developing graphophonemic awareness there are stages through which children progress towards reading mastery. This general progress ranges from print awareness to meaningful word parts (morphemes) identification.
3.2. GRAPHOPHONEMIC AWARENESS CONTINUUM (GENERAL PROGRESSION OF SKILLS)

![Graphophonemic Awareness Continuum](RALAINGITA, W. 2013)

3.2.1. PRINT AWARENESS

As discussed in the previous chapter, print awareness is knowledge about the forms and functions of print. Most children need support to know the difference between a Fidel and a word, know that sentences are made up of words and there are spaces between words in sentences. Children need also to be aware of some of the basic punctuation related concepts like the ‘::’ in Saba and where to begin when reading sentences.

Hence, as children hear stories read aloud, instructional strategies can be included that help them become aware of the concepts of print. For example, print carries meaning, the concept of word, and the concept that sentences are made of words. This is the beginning stage in the graphophonemic awareness continuum.

**ACTIVITY 5**

**Researc**hing **print awareness level among children and its integration in primary MT**

Go to one of the primary schools in your surroundings or work with children that are around your community.

A) Based on your reading of print awareness in chapter 2 and 3, develop a set of items that help you to assess print awareness for grade 1 students.

B) Administer quickly the instrument in a group of 5 students and compile a report on students’ level of print awareness.

C) Look at grade 1 primary MT text book from lesson ‘Week 1’ up to lesson ‘Week 6’ and then analyze whether the contents of the textbook cover those components of print awareness.

D) Report your findings in class.
ACTIVITY 6: TURN-TALK

- How do you utter/know Fidels before you go to school?

As children see print and hear words in everyday language, they begin to associate these words and letters with sounds. They may practice this by paying attention to the sounds of their language like: ma, ma, ma; da, da, da. etc. In turn, these experiences provide support when the child enters school and begins instruction in Fidels. Therefore young children identify Fidels in different ways. For example:

- Young children are exposed to print in their environment: billboards, store and restaurant signs, print on household items, books, etc.
- Children begin to recognize the Fidels that are frequently seen; they may even begin to write a few.

ACTIVITY 7: INDIVIDUAL WORK

Answer the following questions based on your language learning experience.

A) How did your language teachers teach you Fidel-sound correspondence?

B) How many fields/symbols are there in your Mother Tongue?

C) Turn to your partner and name as many letters/symbols that you can. You have 1 minute, ready? Go! Now, your partner will name as many as s/he can in 2 minutes.

D) Which of the Fidels were difficult for you to learn as a child, and which ones were simpler? What is the implication of this in teaching Fidels for primary level students?

Knowing Fidel, and the related sound(s), is associated with beginning literacy. Knowing this enables beginning readers to figure out how printed words correspond to spoken words (Honig et al., 2000). Without this understanding, it will be hard for a child to learn to read.

For languages with Fidels, each Fidel stands for one or two sounds. Fidels are divided into consonants and vowels. The vowels are (አ ኡ ኢ ኤ እ ኧ). The consonants are Fidels without vowels. These are the sixth letters or ‘Sadiss’ (for example: ኢ ኣ እ ኧ … ) Vowels can change the sound of the consonants.

Fidels are not necessarily introduced in the traditional order. In the new MT primary curriculum, the order in which the Fidels and their sounds should be introduced starts with the most frequent ones.
3.2.4. DECODING

ACTIVITY 8: INDIVIDUAL WORK

From the following words, which words are difficult to pronounce correctly? Why?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Soccer</th>
<th>2. Home</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. Elephant</td>
<td>6. Two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Play</td>
<td>8. Thought</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Decoding begins when students are first learning to read and to sound out new words. It involves converting the printed word into its spoken form. It is the tool that enables students to become proficient readers who recognize words effortlessly and rapidly. Beginning readers use Fidel skills “to attack” the pronunciation of words that are not readily recognized. As students’ progress in their reading development, they draw on other word attack skills: the recognition of words, word parts (affixes, base words and Fidel sounds) and the use of context to confirm pronunciation and resolve ambiguity (Honig et al, 1999).

HELPFUL HINTS FOR TEACHERS

- As children begin to learn to read, these experiences are combined with classroom instruction and children begin to decode unknown words to read.
- Some children may have already started using this process before going to school: they begin to understand the correlation between what is written and the sounds of letters/Fidels. Therefore, as students’ reading skills progress, it is important that they begin to see the patterns in words and read words in chunks. They may notice that some words have the same ending (man, fan, and pan).
- Students need to be aware of morphemes and how they can be used to form words (e.g. water +fall =waterfall; play +er =player).

3.2.5 ENCODING (SPELLING/WRITING)

ACTIVITY 9: GROUP WORK

Discuss the following question in groups of three, and then share with your class.

- What are the crucial skills that are needed to develop spelling skills?

Spelling can be defined as a code that uses Fidel sequences and the associated sounds to represent specific words and their meanings. Good spellers/writers have a distinct academic advantage. Spelling skills are beneficial when writing essays and reports or taking tests. Being a good speller can also help in practical situations, like completing a college or a job application. A dictionary is a great resource, but you may not have one handy when you need it. Looking at words often and remembering general patterns are effective ways to improve your spelling skills.

Children need to know how to spell words in order to be able to effectively communicate when writing. When students can spell with automaticity, they can use their cognitive energy on expressing their ideas.
and improve the quality of what is being written. Over 30 years of research indicates that a child goes through developmental phases when learning to spell. A child’s cognitive development plays an important role in this process. If a child is aware that words are made of syllables represented by Fidels, it will be easier to spell words (Honig, Diamond, & Glutlohn, 2006). At the more advanced levels of spelling, students use their knowledge of meaningful word parts (morphemes) and the sound/letter, or syllable/Fidel patterns that are in their MT language. Bear, Inverenizzi, Templeton, & Johnston (1996) outlined five phases of spelling development:

- **Phase I: Preliterate**

The child scribbles, and writes some random letters/Fidels. As literacy skills progress, scribbles include repeated strokes, and some words.

- **Phase II: Letter/Fidel: Sounds**

The student writes letters/Fidels they hear at the beginning and end of words. They will also write the sounds they hear in words (e.g. lat for late). They can begin to spell single syllable words.

- **Phase III: Within Word**

The student begins to focus on the sounds in syllables and begins to recognize letter/Fidel sequences and patterns in the MT. The student also begins to use prefixes and suffixes.

- **Phase IV and V: Syllable Juncture and Derivational Constancy Spelling**

At this phase, the student understands that spelling patterns and word meanings can be used to spell words. The student is also able to write multisyllabic words, changing spelling of endings, based on the structure of the MT and syntactic and meaning functions of the word.

ACTIVITY 10: INDIVIDUAL WORK

Read the above phases once again and try to answer the following question:

What is the implication of the above phases for teachers who teach spelling to primary school students?

The change from one spelling phase to another one is a gradual one and students may exhibit several phases at the same time. When children are first beginning to spell and write they need support and feedback to correct their mistakes (Chomsky, 1976). Students may write words phonetically for several years; however, these children can be taught to spell with explicit instruction (Read, 1975).

In spelling instruction, teachers use a combination of methods and strategies to support students in learning about the orthographic system of their MT as they move through the phases of spelling development. Students need to be taught strategies for spelling unknown words (Tompkins, 2003).

ACTIVITY 11: Piloting the phases among primary school students.

Collect a sample of students’ writing for three students in grade 1 and in grade 5 (total of 6 students). Identify where each child is in the phases of spelling. Then, bring your samples to class and in a small
group discuss how the students in grade 1 are alike and different in their spelling skills. Do the same for the students in grade 5. Present your findings among your groups.

**IMPORTANCE OF SPELLING INSTRUCTION**

Spelling instruction is important for a number of reasons. First, correct spelling of words is a necessary underlying skill for all types of written communication. When students can spell with automaticity, they can place all of their cognitive energy on their ideas, increasing the quality of their products. In addition, when students are directed to write words containing specific elements that have been introduced in decoding instruction, both reading and spelling are strengthened (John, 2005).

In spelling instruction, teachers use a combination of explicit instruction, word sorts, practice activities, and other reading and writing activities. To become good spellers, children need to learn about the orthographic system of their MT and move through the stages of spelling development. They need to be taught strategies for spelling unknown words, participate in a variety of daily reading and writing activities, and gain experience in writing.

Teachers can assess spelling development by examining children’s writing. The choices that children make as they misspell words are important indicators of their developmental level and their instructional needs. For example, a child might spell “Money” as “Mune”, and others might spell the word as “MONYE” or “MONIE.” Teachers can analyze the words children misspell in their writing to identify their level of spelling development and to plan for appropriate instruction (Tompkins 2003).

Spelling is based on the relationship between letters and sounds. For example, in the word hat, a single letter represents each sound. Students blend the sounds /h/, /a/, and /t/ to write the word hat. In the word chip, students still hear three sounds even though there are four letters, because the first two function as one sound, that is, /ch//i//p//=chip. These examples show how to create words by combining letters, either singly or in pairs.

![SPELLING EXAMPLES](image)

**ACTIVITY 12: INDIVIDUAL WORK**

Do the following activities individually.

A) Practice writing words with the following sounds:

1. /c/ /a/ /t/ =
2. /d/ /o/ /g/ =
3. /b/ /u/ /g/ =

B) How would you teach spelling words appropriately? Select a lesson from your mother tongue and prepare an activity to demonstrate teaching spelling words.

When designing spelling instruction, the following guidelines are recommended:

- To build spelling skills, the following word study should be used. The left column identifies what types of words should be selected for word study. The right box identifies teaching methods:
Word STUDY should include:

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal Words</td>
<td>• Spelling patterns – sound patterns and letter patterns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content Words</td>
<td>• Compound words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Frequency Words</td>
<td>• Base words, prefixes and suffixes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Derivatives of words, word origin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Homonyms, antonyms, synonyms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Abbreviations, contractions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Possessive apostrophes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ACTIVITY 13: PAIR WORKS**

A) Think about the patterns that the following groups of words represent.

B) What spelling generalizations can you deduce from each group of words?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group 1</th>
<th>Group 2</th>
<th>Group 3</th>
<th>Group 4</th>
<th>Group 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lid</td>
<td>read</td>
<td>hope</td>
<td>running</td>
<td>Legal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sit</td>
<td>leaf</td>
<td>rode</td>
<td>hopping</td>
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<tr>
<td>rip</td>
<td>seat</td>
<td>smoke</td>
<td>patted</td>
<td>Legality</td>
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<tr>
<td>thin</td>
<td>meat</td>
<td>coat</td>
<td>hugged</td>
<td>Legalization</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**3.2.6 MULTISYLLABIC WORD INSTRUCTION**

Multisyllabic words are often difficult for students to read. These words are long and may require additional strategies for decoding beyond simply sounding out the word. In order to build reading fluency, students should receive instruction on how to decode words using syllables and morphemes. In the primary text, this is called word study.

**ACTIVITY 14:** Answer the following questions based on your elementary and high school language learning experience.

A) What is syllable?

B) How many syllables are in the word syllable?

C) How did your language teachers teach you syllables?

**3.2.6.1 SYLLABLE**

A syllable is a unit containing a single vowel sound (Honing, Diamond, & Gutlohn, 2000). It has two parts: the *onset* and the *rime*. The onset is part of syllable that comes before the vowel. It may be a consonant, consonant blend, or digraph. The rime is the vowel and everything after it.
For example, in the one syllabic words *sing*, *bring*, and *thing*, the rime is *–ing* and the onsets are *s*, *br*, and *th*. Since the last part contains the vowel, it is a rime. However, all syllables do not have an onset; for example, *I*, *it*, and *out*.

![Figure 6: Fromkin, Rodman, and Hymas, 2011](image)

A syllable is a unit of sound composed of a consonant and vowel, or just a vowel. Students who read words that are written using fidelis learn to decode words by syllables from the beginning.

**ACTIVITY 15: I DO, WE DO, YOU DO!**

A) Here are set of words having different syllables. First, the teacher will show you how to pronounce the syllables.

I do!

| One syllable words: | pen, hen, ten |
| Two syllable words: | rabbit, music, hundred |
| Three syllable words: | minivan, volcano, violin |
| Four syllable words: | automobile, television |

B) Pronounce the above words based on their syllables together with your teacher!

We do! (not all the words, some from each level)

C) On your own, pronounce the above words based on their syllables!

You do!

**3.2.6.2 MORPHEMES**

**ACTIVITY 16: INDIVIDUAL WORK**

Divide each of the following words into their smallest meaningful parts (morphemes):

A) Landholder

B) Sustainability
Knowing and using morphemes is the advanced stage in the GA continuum. As children learn more Fidel words and words, they begin to see patterns to the words which may include identifying morphemes. This begins to happen in Grade 1. For instance, they notice that words and word parts can be combined to make words. They also notice that words and word parts can carry meaning. As the result, if the child did something yesterday, s/he can take the word walk and add the morpheme-ed to say, “I walked to school.”

Children also notice that a word has units that carry meaning and can use larger units (chunks vs individual sounds) to decode the word.

**Morpheme is the smallest part of a word that has grammatical function or meaning.**

**Morphology** is the study of morphemes and their arrangements in forming words (Moats, 2010). “Morphology... is simply a term for that branch of linguistics which is concerned with the ‘forms of words’ in different uses and constructions” (Matthews, 1991, p. 3).

**Morphological Awareness** means the ability to recognize the parts of words and word segments that convey meaning. A morpheme is the smallest element of a word that can change a word’s meaning. It can be a single letter. For example, the /s/ at the end of a noun such as cat, which converts the singular to plural: (cat/cats); or the /a/ at the beginning of a word such as atypical, which is a prefix conveying the meaning “not.” Understanding the morphological structure of words is crucial to developing reading fluency. The primary text begin to teach morphemes in grade 2, semester 2. At around third grade, during the Phase 2 level of reading, morphological awareness becomes more important to decoding than phonological or phonemic awareness. At this point, students need to increase their reading speed. Letter-by-letter decoding is inefficient in sounding out new words. Students who are good readers will have naturally acquired a good basic sight vocabulary of familiar words. These students will easily be able to transfer what they know to decoding new words using morphological analysis. Morphology is the key to decoding polysyllabic words. For example, the word decode is a combination of the prefix de- and the familiar root code. reteach (re- to do again + teach). Morphological awareness supports a variety of literacy skills, including word identification, reading fluency, reading comprehension, and spelling. Increased morphological awareness enables children to analyze the internal structure of words and decode them more quickly and accurately.

The next figure shows the progression of Fidel identification skill through morphemes. First a young child hears the sounds of his/her language. Then the child begins to see letters in the environment at his/her disposal. Then the child learns that letters/sounds can be used to make words and that words are made up of sounds. He/she also learns that these words carry meaning and that the words have some patterns; the child learns that there are patterns in the words, larger than individual letters that can be combined. At the advanced level of the progression, the child also learns that there are word parts that have meaning and these word parts (morphemes) can be used to sound out big words, to write big words, and know the meanings of big words.
ACTIVITY 17: REFLECTION

Reflect on the following questions:

A) Look at the graphophonemic awareness continuum, what skills do students learn? Explain. Summarize by using your own words.

B) Share your summary with your partner or with the whole class.

The following charts show the progression of teaching multi Fidel words in the primary Mother Tongue textbooks.

---

*Figure 7 - Learn To Read, Write/Spell Fidel*

*Figure 8 - Graphophonemic Awareness: Grades 3/4 (Decoding/Encoding Word Study)*
In Grades 5-8, the following skills are taught (Ministry of Education, 2013):

- Describe spelling rules for words that have been taught
- Blend more complex taught syllable structures to identify words
- Depending on the language, use more complex morphemes to blend and read words as they are taught
- Use knowledge of morphological meanings to read words (derivational and/or inflectional)

Beginning in Grade 7-8, students learn

- To use free and bound morphemes in blending and segmenting words
- Use more complex contextual meanings of morphemes to read words Free morphemes are words that can stand alone (e.g. run, win).

Bound morphemes are words that cannot stand alone; they exist as part of a larger word. For example the ending –er is not a word by itself. But –er can be combined with the words above to make new words: runner, winner.

ACTIVITY 18: PROJECT /GROUP WORK

Go to nearby school and observe a grade 1 MT teacher teaching reading for beginners.

Address the following questions:

A) What are the children’s oral reading skills? How do they sound out new words?

B) What skills are the teachers teaching for them to be able to read?

C) What else do you see?

Write what you observed in relation with the concepts you learned from this Chapter.
CHAPTER 3: SUMMARY

This chapter has addressed the concept of graphophonemic awareness, which is the ability to link letters (graphemes) to sounds in written text. Children progress through a continuum to reach advanced graphophonemic awareness: Print Awareness, moves to Fidel Identification, Fidel (Grapheme) - Sound Correspondence, Decoding, Encoding, and Morpheme Awareness.

The process of learning encoding skills (Spelling and Writing) includes several phases. Phase I is the Preliterate stage, Phase II is the Letter: Sound stage, Phase III is the Within Word stage, And Phases IV and V are the Syllable Juncture and Derivational Constancy Spelling stages. Spelling instruction should include segmenting words by sound and assigning Fidels or graphemes to each sound.

Multisyllable word decoding can be accomplished two ways: using syllables or using morphemes. A syllable is a unit of a word containing a single vowel sound and may not have meaning by itself. A morpheme is the smallest part of a word that still carries meaning. Some morphemes are free and can stand alone as a word while other morphemes are bound and can only be used when attached to a free morpheme.

CHAPTER 3: Review Questions

1) Explain ‘phonics’ and how it is used to help children learn to read and spell words.

2) Discuss how students begin recognizing words by identifying the letters (fidels). Also discuss:
   A) How they move from identifying to letter (fidel)- sound(s) correspondence. How do students move from identifying letters (fidels) to letter (fidel) sound correspondence?
   B) The difference between decoding and encoding

3) Why, in the context of your language, is it important to teach children how to blend and segment both phonemes/fidels and syllables?

4) What is the difference between syllables and morphemes? Define each of them.

5) Discuss the spelling phases children go through when learning to spell.

6) Illustrate the graphophonemic awareness continuum by developing your own examples to each developmental stage of the continuum.
Below are self-assessment statements. Copy them into your exercise book and put a checkmark (✓) inside the box indicating your answer on the right column: ‘Yes’ if you agree with the statement or ‘No’ if you disagree with the statement. When your answer is ‘No’, please refer back to the module and read more about the topics you are not so sure about; or ask your students or teacher for further information.

Table 8 - CHAPTER 3 SELF-ASSESSMENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATEMENT</th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I can explain graphophonemic awareness.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I can identify developmental continuum stages of graphophonemic awareness.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I can state strategies for teaching graphophonemic awareness.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I can demonstrate phonics as one method of developing graphophonemic awareness.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I can explain the importance of identifying sounds in mother tongue.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I can explain the role of phonics instruction in learning to read new words.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I can explain the difference between decoding and encoding.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I can explain the importance of identifying letters in mother tongue.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I can explain the progression of teaching multi Fidel words in the primary Mother Tongue textbooks.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I can form words using derivational morphemes.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I can discuss the importance of knowing morphological structure of words to develop reading fluency.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 4: READING FLUENCY

**Time allotted for this chapter = 6 hours**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OUTLINE OF CONTENTS</th>
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<tbody>
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<tr>
<td>4.2 Components of Reading Fluency</td>
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<tr>
<td>4.3 Techniques for Improving Reading Fluency</td>
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<td>4.3.1 Partner Reading</td>
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<td>4.3.2 Reader’s Theater</td>
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<td>4.3.3 Choral Reading</td>
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<td>4.3.4 Echo Reading</td>
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<td>4.3.5 Repeated Timed Reading</td>
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<td>4.4 Fluency Assessment Strategies</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**INTRODUCTION**

In this chapter, the student teachers will learn about the meaning of the components of reading fluency, and its role in reading comprehension. In addition to these topics, student teachers will also learn strategies that can be used to build and develop students’ reading fluency, methods for improving reading fluency and how to assess fluency. It is necessary that student teachers understand the critical role of reading fluency in developing comprehension skills. Teachers should not consider that reading speed and accuracy are the ultimate goal of reading.

**LEARNING OUTCOMES**

After completing this chapter, student teachers will be able to:

- Explain reading fluency
- Describe the importance of fluency in reading comprehension
- Summarize the components of reading fluency
- Demonstrate strategies for developing reading fluency
- Identify ways of assessing reading fluency

**INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS**

- Charts
- Syllabi
- References
- Primary MT 1-8 materials
- Audio-visual

**TEACHING AND LEARNING TECHNIQUES**

- Interactive lecture - present and discuss topics based on the language and educational background of the students
• Task-based approach – allow students to initiate ideas, design strategies and reach their own solutions
• Independent study and project methods – encourage students to question, read, and present solutions
• Peer and group work

ASSESSMENT TECHNIQUES

To assess the achievement of the chapter’s objectives, student teachers should be assessed on the basis of the activities designed in the chapter. The activities require students to be involved in different techniques:

• Project work
• Independent and group reflection
• Field studies
• Student teachers demonstrate their own fluency
• Reading assignments and tests designed to assess students’ understanding of the importance of fluency in developing comprehension.

4.1 DEFINITION AND IMPORTANCE OF READING FLUENCY

ACTIVITY 1: THINK-PAIR-SHARE

(Think individually, then pair with your partner, and share your ideas to your class)

A) Describe how a reader sounds when reading fluently.

B) Do you think your oral (loud) reading ability is good? If yes, what is your justification? If no, what would you do to improve your reading fluency?

READING FLUENCY

Reading fluency is the bridge between decoding and reading comprehension.

Reading fluency is the ability to read a text accurately, quickly and with clear expression. When fluent readers read silently, they recognize words automatically. They group words quickly to help them gain meaning from what they read. Fluent readers read aloud effortlessly and with expression. Their reading sounds natural, as if they are speaking. Readers, who have not yet developed fluency, read slowly or word by word, with no expression or accuracy. Their oral reading is choppy and slow (Honig, Diamond & Gutlohn, 2006). Students who lack fluency may need more practice with decoding skills and/or may need more practice with learning to read quickly and smoothly.

In order to understand what they read, children must be able to read fluently, whether they are reading aloud or silently. When reading aloud, fluent readers read phrases and add appropriate intonation. Their reading is smooth and has expression (National Institute for Literacy, 2001).

Fluency is important for motivation, as children who find reading laborious tend not to want read. As readers move into upper primary grades, fluency becomes increasingly important. The volume of reading required in the upper primary years increases dramatically. Students, whose reading is slow or labored, will have trouble meeting the reading demands of their grade level.
Fluency is also important because it provides a bridge between word recognition and comprehension. Fluency is directly related to comprehension. Because fluent readers do not have to concentrate on decoding the words, they can focus their attention on what the text means. Fluent readers use their cognitive energy to understand or comprehend texts. In contrast, non-fluent readers use much of their cognitive energy to decode words. Fluent readers can make connections among the ideas in the text, between the text, and their background knowledge. On the other hand, non-fluent readers, however, must focus their attention on figuring out the words, leaving them little attention for understanding the text.

**ACTIVITY 2: Work Individually and Share Your Ideas with Your Partners**

A) Define reading fluency in your own words and share with your partners.

B) Why is reading fluency important?

### 4.2. COMPONENTS OF READING FLUENCY

**ACTIVITY 3: REFLECTION**

A set of statements are given below. Show your agreement by putting a mark (✓) under ‘agree’ or ‘disagree.’ The main objective of this activity is to help student-teachers reflect on what fluent reading involves and how successful readers read.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Knowing the correct spelling and pronunciation of words helps to understand meaning.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2) It is always possible to understand what we read as long as we know every word in the passage.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3) Fluent readers do not care about the time he/she uses in reading.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4) Fluent readers never stop when they read.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5) Fluent readers sometimes ignore words which they do not know.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6) Efficient readers use appropriate stress, intonation, and pause to understand a text well.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>7) Reading is a process of understanding a text in whatever time it takes.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>8) Fluency is more about reading and speaking speed than understanding the meaning of a text.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9) Fluency requires processing the information rather than decoding words and sentences.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>10) Fluent readers must understand the meaning of each word rather than trying to infer from a context.</td>
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</table>
• Justify your answers and categorize those features of reading into the qualities of fluent and non-fluent readers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Features of fluent readers</th>
<th>Features of non-fluent readers</th>
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Fluency has four different components: rate/speed, accuracy, prosody/expression and comprehension.

**SPEED RATE**

Rate refers to the speed at which the student reads aloud. Rate can be measured as both the number of words per minute for the entire performance and the number of words in the initial minute of oral reading. It also refers to the rate of reading usually determined in words per minute (WPM) or words correct per minute (WCPM).

**ACCURACY**

Accuracy of decoding refers to the ability to correctly generate a phonological representation of each word, either because it is part of the reader’s sight-word vocabulary or by use of a more effortful decoding strategy (i.e., sounding out the word). Skills required for accuracy of decoding include: alphabetic principle, the ability to blend sounds, the ability to use context clues to identify words in text, and a large sight-word vocabulary of high-frequency words (Torgesen & Hudson, 2006).

Accurate decoding is a requirement for building the next component of fluency. Decoding skills build automaticity. Automaticity is the reader’s ability to correctly identify words on the first attempt. When a word is identified correctly, the meaning from the readers’ oral vocabulary is also needed to make sense with other words in the sentence. We want fluent readers to identify the pronunciation of the word and its meaning with automaticity. The beginning readers struggle to read fluently because word recognition is not automatic. Automatic fluent reading requires appropriate instruction on the teacher’s part as well as practice.

**PROSODY/EXPRESSION**

Prosody, or expression, of oral text reading refers to the naturalness of reading, or the ability to read with proper phrasing and expression, suitable volume, stress, pitch and intonation. Prosody is an indicator that the reader is actively constructing the meaning of a passage as he/she reads (Torgesen & Hudson, 2006). Indeed, prosody is an indicator that a student comprehends as he/she reads.

**COMPREHENSION**

Comprehension is reading and understanding what is being read. A non-fluent reader puts a large amount of effort into decoding words. By the time such a reader finishes a sentence, he or she may forget what the sentence was about. Comprehension is blocked because the process of decoding takes so much time and effort that the short-term memory can’t grasp the fragmented input of information.
By contrast, a fluent reader reads in smooth and continuous phrases and the brain can retain and comprehend what is read. Just as a car needs fuel to run, comprehension is largely fueled by fluency. Allowing a budding young reader to ignore fluency does much more harm than good, because it’s essentially allowing them to practice bad reading. One way teachers have tried to avoid this is by taking a simple approach to improve fluency. That is to “read, read, and read some more.” The basic idea behind this strategy is that the more students read the more likely fluency will develop on its own. The problem with this is that there are struggling readers who, for a variety of reasons, haven’t progressed beyond decoding skills. These readers need guidance to move forward with fluency.

It is important to see if a reader who is reading fluently comprehends what has been read. One way is to have the student summarize or tell what has been read.

There are different strategies to teach reading fluency. Some of this strategies are to provide teachers models, teach repeated reading, encourage fluent phrasing, provide opportunities for independent reading, etc. Therefore, the teacher selects the instructional method based on what components of fluency are being taught. Note that rate and accuracy are taught together.

### 4.3. TECHNIQUES FOR IMPROVING READING FLUENCY

When deciding which instructional technique to use, it is important to know what fluency skills you want to teach. For example, partner reading and timed reading build rate and accuracy. Echo and Choral reading build accuracy and expression. Reader’s Theater builds expression.

#### 4.3.1. PARTNER READING

Partner reading is a cooperative learning strategy in which two students are encouraged to work together to read an assigned text. It allows students to take turns reading and provide each other with feedback as a way to monitor comprehension. Partner reading provides a model of fluent reading and helps students learn decoding skills by offering positive feedback. It also provides direct opportunities for a teacher to circulate within the class, observe students, and offer individual remediation (Tompkins, 2003).

**How to use partner reading**

- Choose the assigned reading text and introduce to the students.
- Create pairs within the classroom.
- Model the procedure to ensure that students understand how to use the strategy.

**Note:** It is important for teachers to monitor and support students as they work together. You will learn how to use this strategy in TMT 222.
ACTIVITY 4:

Read the following paragraph with a partner. Then take turns reading loudly to one another and identify the mispronounced words. List them on a separate sheet of paper.

**Hard Working Children**

There were two friends called Aster and Henok in a village. They were hardworking students in the schools. They have already completed their secondary schooling and joined universities. They studied forestry and land management in universities respectively. Their village was covered with very intensive forest. However, because of the increasing population, the forest gradually was deforested for agricultural activities. Consequently, temperature and drought expanded in their village. To avoid these problems, they tried to convince their villagers to reforest their environment again. Finally, their village becomes green and suitable to live in.

A) How many words did your partner read correctly?

B) How many words did your partner read incorrectly?

4.3.2. READER’S THEATER

The reader’s theater strategy blends students’ desire to perform with their need for oral reading practice. Reader’s theater offers an entertaining and engaging means of improving fluency and enhancing comprehension (Tompkins, 2003). Reader’s Theater is a way to involve students in reading aloud. It is a strategy that combines reading practice and performing. In reader’s theater, students perform by reading scripts created from grade-level books or stories. Usually they do so without costumes or props. The goal is to enhance students’ reading skills and confidence by having them practice reading with a purpose. Reader’s theater motivates reluctant readers and provides fluent readers the opportunities to explore genre and characterization. The passage below was rewritten as a reader’s theater script with three characters:

**ACTIVITY 5: Make groups of three and read the script.**

**Hunachew and Tirunesh’s Visit**

Narrator: Hunachew and Tirunesh are husband and wife living in Metema town. The couple was rich. They usually talk about their country sitting under a big tree.

Tirunesh: “When do we visit the country?”

Hunachew: “One day.”

Narrator: He answered.

Tirunesh: “That is the day I am seeking for.”
4.3.3. CHORAL READING

Choral reading is reading aloud in unison with a whole class or group of students. Choral reading helps build students’ fluency, self-confidence, and motivation. Because students are reading aloud together, students who may ordinarily feel self-conscious or nervous about reading aloud, have built-in support (Tompkins, 2003).

Why use choral reading?
Choral reading can provide less skilled readers the opportunity to practice reading and receive support before being required to read on their own. It provides a model for fluent reading as students listen. And, it helps improve the ability to read sight words.

How to use choral reading:
Provide each student a copy of the text so they may follow along. You may also write it on the board, use an overhead projector, or place students at a computer monitor with the text on the screen. Read the passage or story aloud and model fluent reading for the students. Ask the students to use a marker or finger to follow along with the text as they read. Reread the passage and have all students in the group read the story or passage aloud in unison with you.

ACTIVITY 6: Work individually and share your findings with your class.

Go to one of the primary schools and arrange an appointment with the Mother Tongue teacher to practice choral reading among the students. Select a reading passage in consultation with the teacher and follow all the procedures discussed, during choral reading. While the primary school teacher is practicing with the students, observe the students and record what you observe. If you can’t go to a primary classroom, practice in your CTE course. Or, you can practice with a brother, sister or neighbor’s child.

4.3.4. ECHO READING

Echo reading is a reading strategy designed to help students develop expressive, fluent reading. In echo reading, the teacher or parent reads a short segment of text (i.e., sentence or phrase), and the student echoes back the same sentence or phrase while following along in the text. If the students are strong readers, you may choose to alternate taking the lead in echo reading. Let the students read first and you echo (Tompkins, 2003).

During an echo reading exercise, the teacher reads a part of the passage aloud while tracking the print for children to see. After the part of the passage has been read aloud, children imitate, or echo, the teacher. This teaching strategy allows children to practice proper phrasing and expression and develop sight word vocabularies. The guided practice and support of this structure instills confidence in students aiming to develop greater reading proficiencies.

How can echo reading foster fluency for struggling readers?
During echo reading with a student or group of students, your support ensures that students are successful. You are also providing a model for fluent, expressive reading. Over time, you will probably vary the
amount of support that you provide as the students gradually take on more responsibility for reading text independently. Researchers have found that echo reading, as a part of a reading program, contributes to the reading growth of low-achieving readers (Mathes, Torgesen & Allor, 2001).

4.3.5. REPEATED TIMED READINGS

Repeated readings focus on practice as a means of improving the parts of reading fluency: accuracy, rate, and prosody/expression (Hudson, Lane & Pullen, 2005). This method has the following procedures:

- Select a short passage that is within the level of students either from primary school textbooks or other children's literature.
- Identify the child’s baseline reading rate per minute and his/her expression and accuracy skills.
- Set a rate criterion that demonstrates gradual improvement of the child’s fluency.
- The student repeatedly reads and rereads the passage and records the progresses observed in a chart. Rereading should continue until the set criterion is met by the student. If the student cannot reach the criterion within 3-5 readings, the passage is too hard. If so, the teacher should change the text according to the level of the students.

How do students become fluent readers?

Reading, reading and more reading! Reading amount determines the developmental progress of fluency and level of comprehension. Those who read a lot will be richer or more fluent readers and those who read less will be poor readers—which are called the Matthew Effect (Stanovich, as cited in Hirsch, 2003).

4.4. FLUENCY ASSESSMENT STRATEGIES

It is important to monitor students’ progress when building fluency. Having students read aloud is one way to monitor oral reading fluency. This requires systematic observation to determine students’ level and instructional needs. Teachers should consider the components of fluency which are discussed above. Another way to monitor oral reading fluency is to record the number of words that are read correctly in 1 minute. It is also important when students are reading independently, 95-100% of the words are read correctly, for comprehension to take place. When providing instruction, fluency should be around 90% of the words read correctly.

Fluency isn’t always a top priority in reading programs, but it is an important element in the reading process. Reading fluency assessments give teachers an indication of how quickly and fluidly a student can read. Speed isn’t everything, but fluency is directly related to reading comprehension. If a child can read quickly with a good flow, it means they aren’t stopping to decode every single word. When students have to stop frequently to figure out words, they lose the meaning of the story. Assessing fluency identifies students who might need additional practice to improve fluency.

To measure reading fluency the teacher trainers can use the following techniques.

To measure speed (rate) =

1) Students are timed for one minute. The words read wrong are marked, and the number of words read correctly identified.
   
   A) If the student reads for the entire minute, the words read correctly /60 seconds.
   
   B) If the student finishes before a minute, the words read correctly x 60 divided by total time taken. Example:
A Little Dog

The little dog was fast. One day, Jon and the dog went out to play. The little dog got lost. But after a while, the dog came back. Jon took the dog home. When they went home, Jon gave the dog a big bone. The little dog was happy, so he slept. Jon also went to sleep.

Remark: The canceled words are either pronounced incorrectly or jumped.

[A student read 54 words correctly from 60 word text within 50 seconds. To calculate the reading speed of this student, we can use the following formula.

\[
\text{Speed} = \frac{\text{words read correctly} \times 60 \text{s}}{\text{total time taken}}
\]

\[
\text{Speed} = \frac{54 \times 60 \text{s}}{50 \text{s}} = 64.8 \text{ words per minute}
\]

We can use the above example for accuracy also:

To measure accuracy = \( \frac{\text{words read correctly} \times 100}{\text{total number of words}} \)

\[
\text{Accuracy} = \frac{54 \times 100}{60} = 90\%
\]

To measure expression teacher trainers can use rubrics which are set according to the level of students. It is more subjective and varies according to the evaluation ways of the teachers.

Teachers can use expository or narrative text and has to evaluate using the rubrics to evaluate the students. For example, intonation, pitch, eye contact etc.

ACTIVITY 7: PROJECT WORK

As a class, develop a checklist to observe students’ speed, accuracy, and expression. To measure speed, record how many words the students can, on average, read per minute. To measure accuracy and expression, rate the students in categories of correct word reading, somewhat correct, and incorrect after asking them to read a short paragraph that has at least 50 words and report your work to your classmates.

Go to one of the nearby primary schools and ask students to read one of the passages from the mother tongue primary school textbooks. Select a student from grades 4 and higher.
CHAPTER 4: SUMMARY

This chapter dealt with the components of fluency and its importance in the development of comprehension. Non-fluent readers will focus on decoding the words which negatively affects the capacity of short term memory to process information and develop meaning about the text. Non-fluent readers also spend their cognitive energy in decoding words which may in turn affect their motivation to read. Fluency develops gradually and diverse strategies and methods should be used in schools. Repeated reading, modeled reading, monitoring students’ progress through assessing fluency, emphasizing fluency with comprehension, practicing oral reading, and silent reading fluency are some of the instructional strategies and methods that teachers can use in schools.

CHAPTER 4: SELF-ASSESSMENT

Below are self-assessment statements. Copy them into your exercise book and put a check-mark ☑ in the box indicating if you agree or disagree with each statement on the left. Justify your answer if you disagree with the statement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 9 – CHAPTER 4 SELF ASSESSMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>STATEMENTS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I can define the four parts of reading fluency (including comprehension). ☐ Agree ☐ Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I can explain the importance of reading fluency in comprehension. ☐ Agree ☐ Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I can differentiate the characteristics of good and poor readers. ☐ Agree ☐ Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I understand skills required for accuracy of decoding. ☐ Agree ☐ Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I can define reading fluency ☐ Agree ☐ Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I understand fluency assessment strategies. ☐ Agree ☐ Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I can explain the specific advantages of echo and choral reading to improve fluency for poor readers/struggling readers. ☐ Agree ☐ Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I recognize that reading speed is determined by words read per minute. ☐ Agree ☐ Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I understand the advantages of reading aloud. ☐ Agree ☐ Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I can state which teaching methods match the fluency skill to be taught. ☐ Agree ☐ Disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 5: ORAL LANGUAGE AND VOCABULARY

**OUTLINE OF CONTENT**

5.1. Oral Language and its Development
   5.1.1. Components of Oral Language that Support Reading Development
   5.1.2. The Relationship between Oral Language and Reading Development

5.2. Vocabulary Development & Role in Reading
   5.2.1. Vocabulary Size and Growth
   5.2.2. Vocabulary in Context
      5.2.2.1 Syntax and Text structure
      5.2.2.2 Literate Language

5.3. The Roles of Oral Language and Vocabulary that Support Reading Fluency and Reading Comprehension Development

**INTRODUCTION**

This chapter provides information about oral language development and how it supports reading. The role of oral language in vocabulary development is discussed. The components of oral language and vocabulary are explained (phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics). Information is also provided about vocabulary: how vocabulary develops, how vocabulary knowledge grows, and using vocabulary in context. The differences in how syntax (how a sentence is organized) for different types of text structures (i.e. narrative and expository) are discussed. Academic language (language used in the classroom, i.e., ‘deforestation’ and ‘forestation’) is defined and examples from the primary MT materials are provided. Finally, the role of oral language and vocabulary in supporting reading fluency, comprehension and reading development are identified.

**LEARNING OUTCOMES**

At the end of this chapter student teachers will be able to:

- Define oral language and vocabulary
- List the basic components of oral language development that make a difference in reading development.
- Explain how oral language and vocabulary support reading fluency and reading comprehension.
- Identify the relationship between oral language, vocabulary, and reading development.
- Explain how oral language and vocabulary develop.
- Identify instructional methods to teach vocabulary.
- Identify ways to use oral language activities in the classroom.
- Discuss how vocabulary increases over time.
TEACHING AND LEARNING TECHNIQUES

- Interactive lecture—present and discuss topics based on the language and educational background of the students.
- Task based approach—allow students to initiate ideas, design strategies and reach their own solutions
- Independent study
- Cooperative learning and peer learning
- Modeling
- Direct instruction of new vocabularies

ASSESSMENT TECHNIQUES

- Individual, pair, and group work during in-class activities to apply class readings
- Class participation in discussion of key concepts
- Content quiz
- Informal assessment (teacher-made)

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

- Charts
- Syllabi
- References
- Diagrams
- Primary MT 1-8 materials

5.1. ORAL LANGUAGE AND ITS DEVELOPMENT

ACTIVITY 1: BRAINSTORMING

Working in pairs, discuss the following questions and share your ideas with the class.

A) When children begin to learn their mother tongue language, which skill(s) do they develop first?

B) How do they develop these skills?

Oral language is the language which children listen to and speak in their primary mother tongue at home before they enter school. Children learn many oral language skills before starting school that help them learn to read and write. For children, speaking any of the mother tongue languages, a strong beginning in the oral language is necessary to support reading and writing development throughout the school years. Basic oral language skills are important in all mother tongues and also in learning one or more languages. Oral language development includes learning about phonology, morphology, syntax, vocabulary, semantics and pragmatics (discourse/talking/communicating).
The following diagram shows how the oral language components are all related.

**Figure 1 CONNECTIONS BETWEEN ORAL LANGUAGE AND READING SKILLS**

### 5.1.1. COMPONENTS OF ORAL LANGUAGE THAT SUPPORT READING DEVELOPMENT

**ACTIVITY 2: THINK – PAIR-SHARE**

(Think individually, discuss in pairs, then share your ideas with your classmates)

A) Do oral language and reading skills have relationships with one another?

B) If so, what are their relationships?

Oral language and vocabulary have the following components that support children to develop their reading skills.

- **A. Phonology:** Rules about the sounds of the language used to make syllables and words (how the sounds are combined to make words)

- **B. Morphology:** Rules about the internal structure of words in the language (how word parts are combined, i.e. re + teach= reteach)

- **C. Syntax:** Rules about the internal structure and organization of sentences in the language (how words are combined to make a sentence)

- **D. Semantics:** Rules about the meaning of individual words and word combinations (the meanings we have for a word, the correct meaning for the word in a sentence)

- **E. Pragmatics/Discourse/Skills:** Rules about how language is used for social and discourse-level purposes. (how we use language to talk to others)
5.1.2. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORAL LANGUAGE AND READING DEVELOPMENT

Teachers need to provide instruction in the oral language components that are most important when learning to read and in reading development. Among the oral language components that support reading development, vocabulary seems to be the most important for a child’s ability to understand, speak, and read the language well. Vocabulary is first learned through listening to and speaking the words of a language to others (i.e. mom, dad). Once a child enters school, the child’s oral vocabulary skills will support the growth of academic vocabulary. These skills also support learning to read and write in the mother tongue language. It is important that a child is able to understand the most commonly used syntax (sentence structure) and morphology (parts of words) of the mother tongue to be able to write. Syntax and morphology are also components of oral language that support reading development.

There are many models that show the relationship between oral language and reading development. The figure below is one model that can be used to understand how oral language supports the reading process. This model helps explain how the different parts of language work together so that a child can decode (graphophonemic awareness) and can comprehend what is read.

![Figure 2 - THE SIMPLE VIEW OF READING](GOUGH & TUNMER, 1986).

In this model, reading comprehension depends on a student’s ability to decode words. Both word-level decoding and passage-level reading comprehension require strong oral language skills.

Children must first learn the phonology (sounds) and orthography (letters/fidels) of the language to read individual words accurately. To understand the meaning of words that are in a sentence, and paragraph, or reading passage, children need several oral language skills. These skills include semantics, syntax, morphology, and pragmatics (or discourse level) knowledge of language. All of these components work together, to support a child’s ability to learn to read. Note that morphosyntax is used in this model. Morphemes are the smallest units of meaning in a word. The syntax (structure) of the sentence can help decide which morpheme to use. For example: Yesterday, I walked to school. Tomorrow I will walk. Today, I was walking with a friend.

In the next model, these components are organized into three categories (form, content, and use). These three categories show how children learn to speak, read, and write. People who study linguists use the system of three categories to represent and organize the major concepts of language. Each category has component areas of language development (e.g., phonology, morphology, syntax for the category of form). These component areas of oral language development help a child participate in listening, speaking, reading, and writing tasks in school.
The graph below shows the categories and the parts for each category.

**COMPONENTS OF ORAL LANGUAGE AND THEIR CATEGORIES**

![Diagram of oral language components]

**Figure 3 - COMPONENTS OF ORAL LANGUAGE CATEGORIZED BY FORM, CONTENT, AND USE**

*Form* refers to the rules-based aspects of the language, such as the rules that define how words go together in a sentence to make it correct or grammatical. Those kinds of rules are called syntax. A child with a delay in understanding syntax might say something like “book on table” instead of “the book is on the table.” There are also rules about how to add endings to words, like adding the “-ed” to the word, “look” to say “looked” and making the word about something that already happened. A child with a delay in using endings might say “yesterday, I look at the cow.”

*Content* refers to the meaning of language. In terms of speech and language disorders, this refers to vocabulary and the knowledge of words that a child has. Students need to say the word and to also know what the word means.

*Use* refers to the pragmatics of language or the social use of language. These are rules of how language is used in informal and formal conversation. This includes: turn talking, initiating topics, maintaining topics, body language, greetings/salutations, small talk, etc. When we talk to friends and family, we use informal conversation. When we talk in school about subjects, answer questions, etc., the language is more formal.
ACTIVITY 3

Discuss in groups and review the graphic illustration above that shows the components of oral language development and answer the following questions:

A) Why might it be important for children to develop the oral language components of form before they enter school?

B) How do you think children learn about language and how to use language before they enter school?

C) How might children’s knowledge of language use change after they enter school?

5.2. VOCABULARY

What is Vocabulary Knowledge?

Rupley, Logan, and Nichols (1998/1999) state the vocabulary is the glue that connects the ideas and content in stories. Vocabulary knowledge makes it possible for children to comprehend. A person’s vocabulary is the words he/she can understand and use correctly over time (Hart & Risley, 1995).

Vocabulary can be categorized into two types: oral vocabulary and academic vocabulary. The development of these two help children to understand concepts and to communicate well.

**Oral Vocabulary**

- Oral vocabulary is the vocabulary which children can learn from their family and relatives at home.
- Oral vocabulary begins to develop very early in life and includes the words we use to listen to or speak the language.

**Academic Vocabulary**

Academic vocabulary is the vocabulary that children commonly learn at school and will need to develop to understand classroom instruction and the content of the lesson. Everyday activities that children do at school may help them to develop their academic vocabulary. Across the grades, when reading and writing, students must be helped to develop their academic vocabulary. Teachers can help students to develop their vocabulary knowledge by directly teaching words and their meanings, and discussing word meanings within context of the passage.

5.2.1 VOCABULARY SIZE AND GROWTH

If educators want to make sure that all children comprehend what is read, it is important to use strategies to learn vocabulary. Teaching vocabulary explicitly can reduce differences among children ages 8-10. Researchers have found that teachers must reduce vocabulary differences among children by the time they are 7 years old (Adapted from Biemiller, 2005).

The general trend of vocabulary size and growth is listed below (Nagy & Anderson, 1984; Beck & McKeown, 1991; Biemiller, 2005):

- Students aged 5-6 know about 3,600 root word meanings.
• Students aged 7-8 know about 6,000 root word meanings. However, by the age of 8, there are differences in students’ vocabularies. In one class, the word meanings (vocabulary) of students can vary by more than 4,000 word meanings between struggling readers and students who read well. Students aged 6-8 need to learn 800+ words per year or about 2 new words per day.

• When Children start school, they need to learn many vocabulary words in order to be able to read and understand content area subjects, to increase their oral language skills, and to be able to write. Research suggests that in primary grades, children need to learn many words (Biemiller, 1999; Nagy & Anderson, 1984).

• In grades 1 and 2, students need to learn 800+ words per year, or about 2 new words per day.

• Students need to learn between 2,000 and 3,000 words each year from grade 3 onward, or about 6-8 words each day.

• Children in grades 4-6 see and read close to 10,000 words they have never seen in print during each school year.

If the students have heard many words and can use them in their oral language, they will be better prepared to read and write words found in the texts when reading to learn (grades 3 and higher).

Academic Vocabulary Instruction: Primary MT Text

The following Table shows the sequence of skills, for using academic vocabulary, from the primary syllabus across grades 1 through 8.

Table 1 - SEQUENCE OF EXPECTATIONS ACROSS GRADES 1 THROUGH 8 FOR ACADEMIC VOCABULARY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade Level</th>
<th>ACADEMIC VOCABULARY SKILLS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1.          | • Listening, Speaking: Repeat and use grade level academic words (e.g., parts of a book, spatial words, commands).  
              • Reading: Recognize by sight words that are grade level academic words.  
              • Writing: Write grade level academic vocabulary words at least partially correctly (simple commands). |
| 2.          | • Listening, Speaking: Use grade level academic words, common punctuation marks ending a sentence, and words such as: word, sentence, action words (verbs), nouns, say in short (summary), describe, category, story character, and introduction.  
              • Reading: Recognize and read grade level academic words (i.e. word, sentence, verb, noun, summary, describe, category, character in story, introduction).  
              • Writing: Write grade level academic vocabulary words at least partially correct (parts of book, spatial commands; words such as word, sentence, verb, noun). |
| 3.          | • Listening, Speaking: Use grade level academic words.  
              • Reading: Read grade level academic words.  
              • Writing: Write grade level academic words as needed in sentences. |
| 4.          | • Listening, Speaking: Repeat and use grade level academic words.  
              • Reading: Recognize (read) grade level academic words.  
              • Writing: Write grade level academic words. |
5. **Listening, Speaking:** Use newly acquired vocabulary that is learned through: a language-rich context, inferring from context, reading narrative and expository texts. Use grade level academic words. Acquire new vocabulary through explicit direct instruction with student-friendly definitions and application.  
**Reading:** Read grade level academic words.  
**Writing:** Use newly acquired vocabulary to represent concepts in writing, and for original writing. Write grade level academic words.

6. **Listening, Speaking:** Use newly acquired vocabulary that is learned through a language-rich context and through expository texts, narrative texts, and oral poems.  
**Reading:** Read new grade level academic words.  
**Writing:** Use new vocabulary to represent concepts in writing, and for original writing.

7. **Listening, Speaking:** Use new vocabulary. Discuss themes of oral poetry. Use new vocabulary in dialogue and drama.  
**Reading:** Read new grade level academic words. Use textual clues to acquire vocabulary through independent reading. Manipulate discourse markers as clues to understand meaning of new words. Use references to confirm and learn new words.  
**Writing:** Use new vocabulary to represent concepts in writing, and for original writing. Write themes of oral poetry. Begin to use literal and non-literal meanings for further conceptual representation of words.

8. **Listening, Speaking:** Use metaphors and meaning of word roots in figurative speech and oral text. Use new vocabulary from narrative and expository text to read aloud. Practice new words through inferential opportunities in context. Acquire new vocabulary through explicit direct instruction with student-friendly definitions and application.  
**Reading:** Use metaphors and meaning of word roots in academic vocabulary. Read grade level vocabulary that is introduced in a variety of grade level texts. Manipulate discourse markers as clues to understand meaning of new words.  
**Writing:** Use newly acquired vocabulary to represent concepts in writing, and for original writing. Use discourse markers in writing to clarify meaning of new words.

**Remark:** To apply the above strategies please use students’ textbooks and syllabi as much as possible. This is very important, especially in grades 5-8 when students move from learning to read to reading to learn. As students take many subject area classes, they will need to know the vocabulary for each of the subject areas.

**ACTIVITY 4**

Do the following activity individually and share your responses with your partners.

A) What is academic vocabulary? Explain in your own words.
B) Why is it important for students to learn academic vocabulary across the primary grades?
C) As a teacher, how can you help students in grades 1-8 acquire academic vocabulary, especially content-area vocabulary?

VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE

There are many different skills involved in developing the vocabulary knowledge children need to read well. Consider the importance of the following items:

A child’s knowledge of words. Children may recognize or use a great number of words (breadth), but even more important for their reading success is how well they know the meanings of these words (depth). Deep knowledge of a word allows a student to use the word in many contexts and in their efforts to learn more academic content in school. When students first hear, see, and read a word, they can say they saw the word. As children read and write new words, they increase their knowledge of a word’s meaning. Beck, McKeown, and Kucan (2002) discuss the progression students go through as they learn a word.

DEPTH OF KNOWLEDGE

- Know it, can explain it, use it
- Know something about it, can relate it to a situation or a synonym
- Have seen or heard it
- Do not know the word

Children come to school with a basic ability to learn new words. They must store phonological information about new words in their memory. They must also correctly store, organize, and access vocabulary from their memory.

Children must be able to speak and write vocabulary words in classroom activities.

ACTIVITY 5: SMALL GROUP WORK

In groups of five design an activity for students in grade 4 or 5, using some words from a vocabulary lesson in one of the primary grades text books (use a lesson from grades 5-8). Select 5 words that are important to the passage.

A) Use the chart below that lists each of the progression of word knowledge (e.g., Know it and can explain it, Know something about it, Have seen or heard it, Do not know the word) to be used in your classroom activity (Beck et al, 2002).

B) Put the words in the left column.

C) Then give your list to another group and have that group give you their list. Each person in the group will check their level of knowledge for each word. Discuss your findings.

D) Discuss how this can be used to learn how well your students understand important words in a passage.

The goal of this activity for the students is to identify which how well students understand the words that are needed to comprehend the passage.
The National Reading Panel (2000) reviewed the research on vocabulary and their findings are that:

Vocabulary is very important when learning to read.

- Children connect the words they encounter during reading activities with their oral vocabulary. Therefore, their oral vocabulary helps build their reading and academic vocabulary.

- Children will best learn vocabulary from reading activities if they already have some knowledge of the word, or similar words, in their oral vocabulary. It is important to discuss words that are important to the passage before reading.

- Oral vocabulary helps children move from oral to written language forms of language (reading and writing).

- Reading vocabulary is critical for students to become skilled readers who are able to comprehend what is read.

Recommendations for Vocabulary Instruction (National Institute for Literacy, 2001)

- Children will learn some, but not all, vocabulary through incidental learning (hearing and reading the words). They will hear and see words that are not formally taught. But, there are words that will need to be taught directly.

- Indirect vocabulary learning: Children learn vocabulary indirectly when they hear and see words used in many different contexts, for example, through conversations with adults, daily routines, being read to by adults, and reading extensively on their own.

- Direct vocabulary learning: Children learn vocabulary directly when they are explicitly taught individual words and word-learning strategies. Direct vocabulary instruction has been shown to aid in reading comprehension. Direct instruction in vocabulary helps children learn difficult words that may not be part of their oral vocabulary or everyday experiences.

- Students need to learn different kinds of words. Beck, McKeon, and Kucan (2002) describe three tiers, or levels, of words students must learn to develop literate vocabulary.

The tiers identify the complexity of the words and range from words that children hear a lot, to words that are specific to a content area. Teachers should consider these Tiers of academic vocabulary when selecting words for direct vocabulary instruction.
• **Tier 1**: Basic words that rarely require direct instruction in school. This includes some basic nouns, verbs, and adjectives (e.g., *dog, pencil, scary, darkness, night, walk*). These are words that students hear and see a lot (e.g. when reading, signs, etc.)

• **Tier 2**: High frequency words are words that are used across subject areas and will have the greatest impact on a student’s vocabulary knowledge. Direct instruction with Tier 2 words is important to making literacy progress (e.g., *committee, evaluate, fortunate*).

• **Tier 3**: Specialized vocabulary occurs rarely, except in specific types of subject-area text, and may be very technical words. Examples include *phoneme, sonnet, and isotope*. With the exception of higher grades, teachers may not teach specialized vocabulary until the content students must learn uses a higher number of these words (such as high school science). See levels below.

![Figure 4 - LEVELS OF ACADEMIC VOCABULARY (Beck, Mckeown, & Kukan 2002)](image)

When deciding what words to teach, this model is helpful. It is important that words, which students need to know to understand a passage, are taught before reading the passage. Beck et al. (2002) recommend that teachers select Tier 2 words from the passage to teach. However, when teaching complex subject area concepts, it will be important to also teach Tier 3 words (e.g. aorta, circumference). The primary texts identify words to teach that are important to understanding the passage.

**Video Title: Vocabulary Instruction**

• Children benefit from direct instruction of vocabulary items related to a specific reading passage.

• Specific word instruction helps students develop in-depth knowledge of word meanings so they can understand what they are listening to and reading in the classroom.

• Teachers can pre-teach specific words before the students read a passage.

• Repeated and multiple exposures to vocabulary words are important. Teachers should select vocabulary words that will appear in many contexts and support the academic content. Remember, research suggests that it may take as many as 12 encounters with a word for children to know a word well enough to improve their reading comprehension (Biemiller, 1999; Nagy & Anderson, 1984).

• The more times students use vocabulary words and in different contexts, the more likely they will be to learn and use those words.

• Vocabulary instruction is more effective when the students have active engagement with the learning tasks.

• Children learn best when they have instruction over time and can work actively with the vocabulary words.
• Computer technology can be used effectively to teach vocabulary.
• Teachers need to use more than one vocabulary strategy to result in the best learning.

5.2.2. VOCABULARY IN CONTEXT

As students move through the grades, they will read new vocabulary words. The context in which the word is used might help them understand the word. The sentence or passage might also help the student know the word’s meaning. While the word’s context does play a role in helping a student understand the word’s meaning, using the context is harder than some people realize. Sometimes written contexts do not provide enough information about the word’s meaning for students to automatically understand the word. In fact, it has been estimated that only between 5 and 15 of every 100 unknown words students read can be learned by context (Beck, McKeown, Kucan, 2002). So most of the words a student reads likely cannot be learned only on the basis of the word’s context. When students need to figure out a word’s meaning, teachers will need to look at the passage very carefully to choose the best ones for teaching how to use context.

ACTIVITY 6

In small groups, complete the following activity. Be ready to share your reflections with the class.

How well can you determine the meaning of a word based on its context? Choose a passage from a newspaper, magazine article, or a novel and omit 10 key words. Copy (by typing or handwriting) the passage for a friend or classmate to read without the 10 words. Do not omit more than 1 word per sentence. Have your friend or classmate read the passage with the 10 words deleted.

A) What was the most difficult part of this exercise and why?

B) What was the easiest part of this exercise and why?

Extension activity: Try this activity with two different people. Compare the results.

5.2.2.1 SYNTAX AND TEXT STRUCTURE

Children’s reading materials (i.e., books, reading passages, classroom readers) often use syntax (grammar at the sentence level) that maybe different than what the children know in their oral language. Reading material can also have a specific format, or text structure based on the type of passage. For example, stories have narrative structure (i.e. character, setting, etc.). In contrast, expository text structures present facts, ideas, and/or concepts using specific types of organization (e.g., compare/contrast, cause/effect, descriptive, sequential). It is important for teachers to think about the levels of language structure, and how complex the sentences and concepts are.

Conversation has the simplest structure; children have had talked and communicated beginning at an early age. They know and understand the structure of language (e.g. sentences) that are used to talk. The language found in narrative and expository text is more complex. In school, students must comprehend both narrative and expository reading materials. Students must understand the related language (words) of these two basic types of text structures. Graphic organizers can help students understand (examples of narrative and expository graphic organizers can be found in the next chapter). Graphic organizers help students learn about and recognize text structure. For example, a story map can be used to help
students identify the parts of a story (i.e. main ideas and details) the teacher read aloud in class. Graphic organizers can help a student understand a story read independently, or when planning a story that will be written by the student. Structure maps are also helpful for comprehending and writing of expository text.

**Figure 5 - LEVELS OF LANGUAGE STRUCTURE AND COMPLEXITY - FROM BASIC TO COMPLEX**

### 5.2.2. LITERATE LANGUAGE

The vocabulary and syntax (sentence structure) that students encounter in school becomes more complex. In narrative and expository reading, there may be more complex syntax as well as harder forms of syntax (i.e. compound sentences). These syntax features are found more often in school (texts, class discussions, etc.) than everyday language. Teachers need to provide instruction in the language and sentence structure. Using books and writing activities in the classroom will help students understand the more complex language, especially when reading content area texts.

**GRAPHIC ORGANIZERS THAT FOCUS ON LEARNING VOCABULARY**

Concept maps can help students visually organize what they know, and learn, about a word. (Honig et al, 2006). Concept maps are one type of graphic organizer. The teacher chooses a word that is being taught and that the students need to learn the meaning of the word. The word is written in the middle, and then the other parts are completed through classroom discussion (i.e., what is this? What is it like? What are examples? What are non-examples?).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is this?</th>
<th>What is it like?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Something that carries people on roads from one place to another</td>
<td>A car has wheels, windows, seat, trunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CAR</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples</td>
<td>Non-examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Van, SUV, passenger car</td>
<td>Plane, boat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 6 - Graphic Organizer**

The chart shown above can also be used to teach synonyms (words that mean the same: said, tell, say) and antonyms (words that mean the opposite: hot/cold). For example, the target word could be *happy*; SYNONYMS: glad, smiling; ANTONYMS: sad, crying. You can also use the words in sentences: EXAMPLES: When it is my birthday, I am happy; NON-EXAMPLES: When I break a toy, I am not happy, I am sad. This teaching strategy can help children identify and discuss words that have many meanings (i.e. water table, scientific table). This can help students understand that a word can have more than one meaning.
The example below is from the Amharic primary text. The focus is on synonyms and antonyms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Synonym</th>
<th>Antonym</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretty</td>
<td>Ugly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sentence
She is a beautiful girl.
The yellow truck is ugly

5.3. THE ROLES OF ORAL LANGUAGE AND VOCABULARY THAT SUPPORT READING FLUENCY AND READING COMPREHENSION DEVELOPMENT

A strong basis in phonology combined with vocabulary knowledge, and morphology helps children decode individual words easily. Students who are fluent readers spend less time decoding individual words and more time figuring out the meaning of the text. If the student is not strong in oral reading fluency, one or more of these areas of language may be the reason.

Oral language and reading fluency together are important for reading comprehension. Reading comprehension depends on language abilities that have been developing since birth. However, it is vocabulary, syntax, and pragmatics (discourse/conversation knowledge) that are most strongly connected to a student’s ability to comprehend. Basic vocabulary and grammar are clearly essential to comprehension. Both help students understand how words are used to make a sentence and to other sentences in a text (Kintsch & Kintsch, 2005).
CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY

This chapter has presented you with information about oral language and its development; and the specific components of oral language that support reading development. In addition, vocabulary knowledge and teaching methods were discussed. This section also helps you recognize the important features of oral and written language.

Components of oral language development that support reading development throughout the school years include:

- Phonology
- Morphology
- Syntax
- Semantics
- Pragmatics

These components of oral language help children develop oral language and listening comprehension skills and knowledge of written language (including text structure). Teachers should incorporate multiple oral language activities within the classroom. Vocabulary instruction can help build children’s knowledge of language content and support their reading growth include:

- Word charts and tables
- Use of Graphic Organizers and Diagrams
- Pre-teaching important vocabulary
- Teach children how to identify signal words related to types of text structure
- Teach the elements of narrative text, and types of expository text structure
- Use of technology
CHAPTER 5: Review Questions (Oral Language and Vocabulary)

1. Explain the connection between oral language and vocabulary and how oral language supports building a reading vocabulary.

2. You have read that students must learn many new words per year.
   a. The research indicates that primary school students above grade 3 must learn about ___ new words a year and about ____________ words can be taught per week.
   b. How can learning words that have some of the same morphemes (i.e. forest, reforestation, deforestation) help students learn more words?
   c. What would be a good graphic organizer that can be used to teach words that are related to each other? Demonstrate that by providing an example

3. Develop a graphic device to explain some of the words you are learning or studying in your MT program. You can use a semantic map or a Venn diagram.

4. Two of the important techniques in learning new words are developing depth of knowledge and providing numerous opportunities for practice and transfer. You have learned a lot of new concepts and words in this chapter. To help you understand the levels of word knowledge:
   A. Identify 5 tier one words and list them. These are words you hear all the time and you know.
   B. Identify 5 tier two words. These words may be harder words for something you already know (i.e. you know the word parts or components)
   C. Identify 5 tier three words. These words are content area vocabulary words that are new to you.
   D. Look at the tier two words and tier three words. List two strategies you can use to learn these words.

5. Explain morphemic analysis as an important skill in learning new words and provide examples (at least four words) from your MT.

6. Argue for or against the following statement: “Selection of words to be taught in primary school grades can be randomly done.” Substantiate your position by providing at least three research based evidence you learned in the chapter.

8. If you are asked to identify a strategy you could use to improve the size of your vocabulary, what would you do?
Below are self-assessment statements. Copy the statements into your exercise book. Put a (√) in the box by each statement. Check if you agree (yes) or disagree (no).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) I can list the components of oral language development that influence reading development.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) I can explain how components of oral language and vocabulary support reading fluency and reading comprehension.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) I can identify the relationship between Oral Language, Vocabulary, and Reading Development.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) I can explain Oral Language Development</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) I can explain the three levels (types of vocabulary) and give examples of Tier 2 words.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6) I can identify ways to incorporate oral language and vocabulary instruction and activities in the classroom.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7) I can discuss Vocabulary Size and Growth; how many words a student knows in grade 1 and how many words a student must learn each year.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8) I can discuss how to increase vocabulary size and support growth.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 6: LISTENING AND READING COMPREHENSION

Time allotted for this chapter = 9 hours

OUTLINE OF CONTENTS

6.1. Listening Comprehension

6.2. Reading Comprehension
   6.2.1. Reading Comprehension Models
   6.2.2. Reading Comprehension Strategies
   6.2.3. Reading Comprehension Instructional Techniques
   6.2.4. Reading Comprehension of Different Genres
      6.2.4.1. Narrative Texts
      6.2.4.2. Expository Texts

6.3. Improving Comprehension: Effective Questioning and Meaningful Discussions

6.4. Teaching Comprehension in Inclusive Settings: Considering Diversity

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, you will examine different models of reading comprehension. You will learn about both listening and reading comprehension. You will also examine the different genres (e.g. narrative and expository) and their related text structures. Finally, you will also learn instructional strategies (approaches) that can be used to build comprehension and instructional techniques that teachers can use to teach comprehension. This includes asking questions at all levels of Bloom’s Taxonomy.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

At the end of this chapter, student-teachers will be able to:

- State the importance of building children’s listening skills and explain how those skills are related to development in reading.
- Explain the reading comprehension models and their components.
- Describe listening and reading comprehension and their roles in learning to read and reading to learn.
- Explain the importance of genre knowledge and related text structures for comprehension.
- Apply instructional strategies to teach comprehension.
- Identify and analyze a variety of effective comprehension strategies that students can use to support listening and reading comprehension.
• Synthesize the concepts of comprehension strategies in relation with the newly revised primary school MT curriculum
• Identify the higher levels of questioning and the importance of using questions at all levels of Bloom’s Taxonomy.

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS
• Charts and graphs
• Model texts of different genres
• References
• Primary MT 1-8 textbooks and syllabi
• Videos (audio-visual)

TEACHING AND LEARNING TECHNIQUES
• Interactive lecture – present and discuss topics based on the language and educational background of the students
• Task based approach – allow students to initiate ideas, design strategies and reach their own solutions
• Independent study
• Cooperative learning and peer learning
• Modeling
• Situational Teaching Approach

ASSESSMENT TECHNIQUES
• Individual, pair, and group work during in-class activities to apply class readings and listening
• Class participation in discussion of key concepts
• Content quiz
• Informal Measures (teacher-made, for example, observation, information gathering and talking in groups or with individuals)
• Open ended questions (for example: inferential and text based questions)

6.1. LISTENING COMPREHENSION

ACTIVITY 1: BRAINSTORMING

THINK PAIR SHARE
A) What is the difference between hearing and listening?
B) What would you do while you are listening to someone is speaking?
C) What challenges have you faced while you listen?
Oral language development includes speaking and listening. Children must be able to express themselves in their Mother Tongue. They must also be able to understand what others are saying when speaking to them in the Mother Tongue. Oral language development is related to the components of reading and writing. It includes **phonemic awareness, oral vocabulary, and oral fluency** (refer the preceding chapters, 2, 4, and 5). Building these skills will help children when reading and writing.

Listening comprehension is a critical skill both in learning to read and reading to learn (Howell, 2005). Daily, we spend much more time listening and speaking than we do reading and writing (Morley, 2001). In many classrooms, listening comprehension is not seen as a critical skill for reading and writing. However, speaking is only communication when it is comprehended by another person. There are strategies that good listeners use in attempting to comprehend listening texts: Top-down and bottom-up listening.

### Top Down and Bottom Up Listening

Students who are successful listeners use both bottom-up and top-down strategies when comprehending what they hear. Top-down processing refers to how we use our world knowledge to give meaning to what we hear. This is how we use our knowledge of the culture when listening. It also involves the listener’s ability to use prior information to understand (Morley, 2001). When we hear something, we use our prior knowledge to predict what the person will say next and to help comprehend what we hear (Nunan, 1991). For example, a teacher can ask the students to summarize a story that is read aloud. Or, students could be asked to listen for detailed information when ordering in a restaurant and hearing information presented on TV (Howell, 2005). In addition, Larry Vandergrift (1999) emphasizes that listening is a complex, active process of making meaning; listeners match what they hear with what they already know. When learners use prior knowledge to understand the meaning of a message, they are using **top-down** processes. Prior knowledge includes the knowledge of the topic, familiarity with the subject, awareness of the type of response that should be given, the text-type, and the culture or other information held in long-term memory.

On the other hand, bottom-up processing involves making meaning from the sounds of the language that are heard. We use these sounds to make words, and to hear how the words are organized in a sentence, etc. to understand what is being said.

In developing listening comprehension both approaches can be employed; they work together to support understanding (Peterson, 1991). Students learn to fluently use these processes in their first language (L1); however, they may need to be taught how to use them in their second language.

### Activities in Pre-listening, While Listening and Post Listening

We want students to be effective listeners so they can predict what they are going to hear next when listening to a story, classroom directions, etc. (Harmer, 1991). We also make predictions for various situations (e.g. when Mom says it is time to come inside and we know it is time for dinner). We know what is going to be said and we know what is important. Using pre-listening activities is one way to teach listening comprehension and includes activities such as: predicting the topic, activating prior knowledge, and pre-teaching vocabulary words (Richards, 1983).

During listening, students check if their prediction was right or wrong. They attentively listen and understand the main ideas. There can be also predicting in the while listening stage. This helps remind students the purpose for listening. Sometimes, students can be asked to summarize what they have heard up until a point in a passage while listening to a story read aloud, etc. When they continue listening, they can be asked for general or specific information based on the text. After all, these activities help
the students to listen effectively and to comprehend the text. Post listening activities are also crucial to
develop students’ analytical skills. These activities are summarizing, evaluating and drawing conclusion
related to the listening text and making connections to the other texts. These activities help students to
make meaning by interpreting and writing about what they hear in the listening text. In addition, these
strategies support students in filling in details that the writer has not directly described.

Generally, listening activities are most effective when they are part of a task (Ur, 1984). We usually have a
purpose for listening and we usually do something with what we hear. It also helps if these activities
use real world contexts, because this makes the task more meaningful. It is important to practice listening
skills in real-life situations, where the student can see the person speaking. The body language of the
speaker provides hints for understanding what has been said. In addition, it is also important to encourage students to practice listening skills outside the classroom. One way is to use resources on the
Internet (e.g. free listening materials). Students can pick topics of interest and at their developmental
level. Students can also listen to the information several times. Listening to radios, their parents and to
friends are also other ways to build listening.

6.2. READING COMPREHENSION

Reading is a complex process that develops over time. From the beginning, comprehension of what is
being read should be part of instruction, rather than waiting until students have mastered the basics of
reading. This can begin with the teacher reading aloud. Beginning readers and strong readers must
understand that the ultimate goal of reading is comprehension (Armbruster, Lehr, & Osborn, 2001, p.
55). Through reading, we learn about the world around us.

Comprehension involves interaction with the text; actively reading and constructing meaning of what is
being read. Active readers relate the text information to their own knowledge and experiences to
understand. When constructing meaning, both literal and inferential text comprehension strategies are
used. Literal comprehension is recalling information from the text that can be found “right there.” The
answer is in the passage. Inferential information is not stated directly in the text and requires the reader to
also use prior knowledge and what is known about the topic. For students to be able to answer inferential
questions, it is important to ask questions from all levels of Bloom’s Taxonomy. Across the grades, it is
important for students to not only answer recall questions, but also analyze, evaluate, and synthesize what
has been learned.

[During adaptation, refer to the primary school MT textbooks and provide examples of literal
comprehension and inferential comprehension questions.]

6.2.1. READING COMPREHENSION MODELS

There are two major reading comprehension models: the Simple View of Reading and the Rand
Model of Reading. The simple view model discusses the different skills needed to be able to read and
comprehend. In the simple view of reading model (Gough & Tunmer, 1986), decoding and language
skills are seen as important to reading comprehension. If a child can quickly and fluently decode words and
understand spoken language, it is likely that the child will be successful in learning to read.

The simple view of reading emphasizes the importance of making sure that a student’s decoding skills
are strong, starting when they first learn to read. To build language comprehension, it is also important to
Teach language across content and subject areas (i.e. science words).
The Model: D (decoding) x LC (language comprehension) = RC (reading comprehension).

Depending where a student is in the process of learning to read, either decoding skills or language comprehension may be more important as the student becomes a stronger reader. For example, when first learning to read, decoding new words is necessary to be able to read and comprehend. As the students improve their reading skills, language comprehension ability becomes increasingly important, especially when reading content area texts.

![Diagram of the cognitive foundations of learning to read](image)

Figure 16 - FRAMEWORK OF COGNITIVE FOUNDATIONS OF LEARNING TO READ

According to simple view of reading model, learning to read is based on two important competencies: Language Comprehension and Decoding. Language comprehension is the ability to make meaning from spoken language. Decoding is the ability to recognize words in writing.

Both work together for the student to read.

Decoding is the ability to decode new words they read. When students can recognize the relationship between written and spoken words, they can read many new words. Students also need to understand the language of the text, and the meaning of these words. If you look at the graphic, there are many skills that support decoding:

- Cipher Knowledge is the ability to use the letter/sound relationships to read new words.
- Lexical knowledge is all the words a person knows.

To be able to use these two skills, students also need beginning literacy skills:

- Knowledge of the letters and their names and the letter/sound correspondences.
- Knowledge of the sounds of the language.
Cognitive Development and Literacy Skills

And concepts of print.

Language comprehension includes both knowledge of the mother tongue language (phonology, sentence structure and word meanings) and the knowledge of the world.

The two main skills that support Language Comprehension are:

- Background Knowledge
- Linguistic Knowledge and it’s components: phonology, syntax, and semantics

You learned about the components of linguistic knowledge in the last chapter.

Both background knowledge and linguistic knowledge provide the basis for listening, speaking, reading and writing. Both skills are developed over time. Early in reading, decoding new words may be more important. As students’ grade level increase, language comprehension is more important especially in subject areas.

**Rand Model**

A second model which helps to explain what happens between the reader, the text, and the reading activity, is referred as the Rand Model (Snow, 2002).

In this model, there are 4 components that work together for reading comprehension to happen (Snow, 2002).

The **READER** comprehends what is being read based on abilities, knowledge and experiences related to the topic. Motivation is also important.

The **TEXT** is what must be comprehended. The complexity of the text (basic or advanced) and the text characteristics (e.g. fonts, graphics, and layout) make a text easy or hard to read. The genre of the text is also important. Is it a narrative or an expository text? (You will see the explanation for text types in the subtopic 6.4)

The **ACTIVITY** includes the purpose and reasons (goals) for reading. Is the purpose for fun, or is the student reading to learn? What the reader does to actively read and understand the text, and what strategies...

---

*Figure 17 – The Rand Model*

A Heuristic about Thinking for Reading Comprehensions (Sweet & Snow) 2003
they use to understand what is being read is also important. These elements are all important when reading. How well a person reads and the supports for reading are also part of the fourth component, the **Sociocultural Context**. This is the school, community and other factors that support literacy. “The effects of contextual factors, including economic resources, class membership, ethnicity, neighborhood, and school culture, can be seen in oral language practices, in students self-concepts, in the types of literacy activities in which individuals engage, in instructional history, and of course in the likelihood of successful outcomes” (Snow, 2002 pg.17).

Also, as a student’s background knowledge increases, their ability to comprehend improves. Beginning readers are able to identify facts and details that are found in the passage; right there (Gunning, 2003). As students begin reading to learn, they are able to make inferences, relate new knowledge to what is known, and to think critically about what is being read. These readers can evaluate and apply the information.

### ACTIVITY 2: REFLECTION

A) Discuss how each component in Simple view and Rand Model of reading are important to comprehending what is being read.

B) Write a brief summary by comparing and contrasting the two models.

### 6.2.2. READING COMPREHENSION STRATEGIES

Comprehension involves several processes and kinds of knowledge, including having some prior knowledge that can be used to understand the text, being familiar with vocabulary, knowing how the text is organized, and recognizing when text is making sense and when it is not (Alan, et al., 2005). In addition, it includes application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation of a text.

### ACTIVITY 3: COMPARE/CONTRAST

A) Complete the following chart by listing the strategies you use to comprehend when you are reading.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Before reading</th>
<th>During reading</th>
<th>After reading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a) Compare the strategies you use when reading with a partner and complete a Venn diagram using the following information:

- Partner 1 will write his/her name above one circle and then list the strategies used that the other partner does not use.
- Partner 2 will write his/her name above the other circle and then list the strategies used that the other partner does not use.
- In the middle, where the two circles overlap, list the strategies that both of you use.
Comprehension strategies are the skills we use to help us understand (Gunning, 2003). These skills can be used when hearing a text read aloud, when reading the text with a teacher, or when reading independently. There are strategies that can be used before, during, and after reading. The table below presents strategies that can be used during each stage of reading. These strategies are used in the new primary texts.

The following table shows the reading strategies that are used by skillful readers.

**Table 8 - STRATEGIES THAT CAN BE USED DURING EACH STAGE OF READING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Before Reading</th>
<th>During Reading</th>
<th>After Reading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Predicting (what the passage will be about)</td>
<td>• Identifying the Main Ideas and Details</td>
<td>• Summarizing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Previewing the passage</td>
<td>• Organizing Details (e.g. Graphic Organizers)</td>
<td>• Drawing conclusions and making inferences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Activating Prior Knowledge</td>
<td>• Making Inferences</td>
<td>• Making connections to other texts and prior knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Setting purpose and goals for reading</td>
<td>• Summarizing as reading sections of the passage</td>
<td>• Critically evaluating what has been read</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Identify the text Structure (Narrative or Expository)</td>
<td>• Visualizing</td>
<td>• Completing graphic organizers to help understand what has been read.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Introducing Vocabulary</td>
<td>• Identifying reference (For example refer to Grade 7 students' textbook 1st day, P24 question no. ☐)</td>
<td>(See Amharic Grade 8 students' textbook Page 21, 27)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Brainstorming</td>
<td>• Generating questions</td>
<td>• Discussing main idea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Using Graphic Organizers</td>
<td>• Evaluating (reading Critically)</td>
<td>• Focusing on story structure and theme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Monitoring comprehension (Do I understand what I am reading, if not what can I do to help me understand?)</td>
<td>• Identifying reference (For example refer to Grade 7 students' textbook 1st day, P24 question no. ☐)</td>
<td>• Focusing on expository text structures</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.2.3. READING COMPREHENSION INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNIQUES

Effective comprehension instruction includes:

A. BEFORE READING

(Note that during adaptation, you have to include specific examples to each of the instructional techniques from the primary school MT textbooks)

- Set a purpose for reading by asking questions towards the main idea of the passage.
- Jotting down key words and make discussion about these words
- Activate and build students’ background knowledge by asking questions about the topic of the text or by webbing or by KWL charts
  - See example of how Webbing helps in comprehension taken from Amharic Students’ textbook Grade 5, Page 119-120.

![Webbing Chart](image)

**Figure 19 – WEB CHART**

KWL is an important approach that helps to comprehend what we read, **K**-stands for what we already know, **W**- for what we want to know and **L**- for what we learned. This strategy easily provides direction to the reader to comprehend the message in a text in an organized manner. Teachers begin using this strategy before reading by asking questions and writing the student’s responses. In the second box, responses are recorded during the lesson. In the last box, the students are asked what they learned. Responses are recorded in the last box. Students can also use this when they are reading independently.

Select a Passage from one of the primary MT textbooks and insert examples on the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What I already know</th>
<th>What I want to know</th>
<th>What I learned from the passage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• Help students make predictions by brainstorming and asking learners to anticipate what will be read from the topic, graphics, pictures and text from their experience (see example for activating prior knowledge and making prediction in pre-reading activities).

• Introduce vocabulary

• Identify the text Structure- the teacher should brief shortly the type of the text to be read and its focus (Narrative or Expository)

B. DURING READING
• Help students learn to monitor or check to see if they understand what they are reading; (e.g. stop and ask questions)

• Model what good readers do (e.g. picture in your mind what is happening, reread certain parts, stop and summarize what has happened, predict what is going to happen next)

• Scaffold students to increase their comprehension by asking questions for specific information

C. AFTER READING
• Helping students to think back over the material and summarize the main ideas by asking questions and making discussion.

• Guiding students to consolidate and add more information to their ideas about what they have read

• Supporting them to make connections with characters, situations, events, etc. in the reading text with the elements in other texts they know.

• Use/complete graphic organizers

• Draw conclusions and make inferences

• Focus on story structure and themes

• Providing levels of questions, including questions that require higher level thinking, (e.g., the answers are not “right there” in the text)

• Providing opportunities for wide reading

ACTIVITY 4
• Use an excerpt from the Primary MT teacher’s manual grades 5 to 8 to identify what strategies are being used before, during, and after reading to build comprehension.

6.2.4. READING COMPREHENSION OF DIFFERENT GENRES

ACTIVITY 5: BRAINSTORMING

A) When you are deciding what to read, have you noticed differences in the types of reading materials that are available (i.e. newspaper, text message, internet, article, etc.)?

B) What are the similarities and differences in the different types of reading materials (i.e. tell a story, expository, etc.)?
A student’s understanding of the different types of text structure plays a key role in reading comprehension (Dickson, Simmons, & Kameenui, 1998). Teachers need to be able to teach using explicit instruction. Explicit instruction can help develop student’s understanding of the different types of text structures. Knowing the different types of text structure gives students the tools to help them make sense of what is read. As students move from learning to read to reading to learn, it is important that students understand the text structures and how each type is organized for reading. There are generally two types of text structure: expository and narrative (Honig et al., 2006).

6.2.4.1. NARRATIVE TEXTS

Narrative text tells a story; it may tell about factual events, or tell a tale from oral tradition. Some examples of narrative texts are nonfiction, poetry, and fiction. Most children understand the structure of narrative text. By the time they begin school, they have heard family stories and oral history, listened to stories read aloud to them, and may have watched TV. Narrative text tells about everyday lives, which is also familiar to children. Narrative text has its own organization; knowing this helps readers comprehend (Dickson et al., 1998). Stories have a beginning, middle and an end. Stories are also organized around a set of elements called the *story grammar*.

Providing instruction in story grammar can help students organize the information (build a schema) and give them a way to understand (Honig et al., 2006). Schema is how we organize and store information in our brain. Organizing the passage using the story elements helps us store and use information. The key elements in story grammar are:

- **Setting**: when and where the story takes place
- **Characters**: people or animals in the story, and their characteristics (what they think, what they look like, their actions, etc.).
- **Plot**
  - What problem, or goal, does the main character face?
  - What does the character do to solve the problem?
  - What happens? How does the story end?
- **Theme**: the main message of the story; what the author is trying to tell you.

Story maps are a way to visually represent the elements of a story. There are several formats and these can help identify important elements in the story (e.g. title, setting, characters, problem, events, outcome, and theme). Story maps can range from simple to complex, matching the reading level and needs of the learners.

**SIMPLE STORY MAP**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title:</th>
<th>Beginning</th>
<th>Middle</th>
<th>Ending</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>First…</td>
<td>Then/Next….</td>
<td>In the end…..</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[See example from grade 7 in the Amharic students’ textbook, page 159 and Grade 8 page 223]
6.2.4.2. EXPOSITORY TEXTS

Expository texts help to explain facts and concepts; the main purpose is to inform, persuade or explain. Expository texts are informational texts that describe the natural or social world. As students move to reading to learn, most of the reading is expository text. There are several organizational patterns (text structure). The challenge to the student is to identify the organizational pattern, in order to help understand what is being read. This type of reading involves more abstract thinking; students need to compare and contrast concepts, recognize causality (e.g. we throw trash in Lake Tana and it becomes polluted), synthesize information, and/or identify solutions for problems.

Expository text structure is organized by both the physical presentation and the underlying text structure (Honig et al., 2006). The physical presentation is how the information is divided: headings and subheadings, fonts, signal words, and the location of main idea sentences.

Text structure is the organizational text pattern: cause-effect, compare/contrast, description, problem/solution, and sequence. When reading, there are certain key words that can give clues to the structure of the text. These are called signal words.

To meet the needs of all learners, both narrative and expository text structure need to be explicitly taught.

Table 11 - TYPES OF EXPOSITORY TEXT STRUCTURE FOR EACH KIND OF EXPOSITORY TEXT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text Structure</th>
<th>Description of the Structure</th>
<th>Signal Words</th>
<th>Cues to Identifying the Text Structure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cause-Effect</td>
<td>Explains the reasons why something happens</td>
<td>Because, due to, since, therefore, so, as a result, consequently</td>
<td>the causes(s) leading to the effect(s), or problem(s) and the possible solution(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem/Solution</td>
<td>Poses a problem and then provides possible solutions to the problem</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compare/Contrast</td>
<td>Discusses how two things are alike and different</td>
<td>Like, same/similar, both, also, too, unlike, but, in contrast, on the other hand</td>
<td>How things are the same and how they are different</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Explains a concept, etc. by creating a picture in the reader's mind</td>
<td>To begin with, first, second, next, then, finally, most important, also, in fact, for instance, for example, in front, beside, near, after</td>
<td>Recognize a list or set of characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequence</td>
<td>Presents information in a chronological, or sequential order</td>
<td>Before, first, during, while, as, at the same time, after, then, next, at last, finally, now, when</td>
<td>Identify a sequence of events, actions, or steps</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Video Title: Identifying Expository Texts**

**ACTIVITY 6: DEEPENING UNDERSTANDING OF EXPOSITORY TEXT**

A) Provide an example of an expository passage from the primary text.

B) What type of expository text structure do you think is being used in the video you watched?

(Allow several students to answer)

**Insert a sample expository passage from grades 5 to 8 MT textbooks**

Duke (2000) examined classroom instruction and classroom libraries to identify the level of support for teaching expository text to beginning readers. She found that in grades 1 through 3, less than 7 minutes per day were devoted to reading expository text. It is important that children be exposed to expository text when beginning to read in order to be successful in reading and understanding content area text. Beginning readers can listen to expository texts that are read aloud. Teachers can also begin to use titles, charts and graphs, and graphic organizers to help children begin to learn about the types of expository text structures. There are specific graphic organizers, which can be used to record information from the text and to learn about the different structures.

**Expository Text Structure**

Graphic organizers can be used to help students understand what they are reading. There are different types of graphic organizers for each kind of expository text. Notice that in the chart above and the templates, signal words and phrases are listed. Students can learn to look for signal words in the passage. These words can help them identify what type of expository passage they are reading. These words can also help them select the correct graphic organizer to help record information.
### Table 12 EXPOSITORY TEXT STRUCTURE TEMPLATES

**Problem and Solution**

Purpose: to state one or more problems and provide one or more solutions to the problem.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Problem</th>
<th>Solution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>advantage</td>
<td>disadvantage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>answer</td>
<td>in order to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as a result of</td>
<td>issue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>because</td>
<td>led to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cause</td>
<td>problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dilemma</td>
<td>puzzle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>question</td>
<td>since</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so that</td>
<td>solution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>solved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Comprehension Question Frames

- What is the problem?
- Who has the problem?
- Why is it a problem?
- What is causing the problem?
- Who has the problem?
- What solutions have been suggested or tried?
- What are the pros and cons of various solutions?

### Graphic Organizers

![Diagram of Problem and Solution]

![Diagram of Problem and Solution]

![Diagram of Problem and Solution]
**Cause and Effect**

**Purpose:** to explain why or how something happened/happens

**Effect = what happened**  
**Cause = why it happened**

**Signal Words and Phrases**

- as a result
- because
- consequently
- due to
- effects of
- for this reason
- how
- if ... then
- impact
- in order to
- influenced by
- is caused by
- leads to
- on account of
- outcome
- reasons for
- since
- so that
- therefore
- thus
- when ... then

**Comprehension Question Frames**

1. What were the specific events that happened?
2. Why did the events happen? What were the causes?
3. What were the results or outcomes of these events happening? What was the effect?
4. Did prior events cause or influence the main events? If so, in what ways?
5. What is the significance of the event and/or the results (outcomes)?

**Graphic Organizers**

- Cause → Event → Effect
- Cause → Event → Effect
- Cause → Event → Effect
- Cause → Event → Effect
- Cause → Event → Effect
- Cause → Event → Effect
## Description

**Purpose:** to explain a topic, concept, person, place, event or object by providing characteristics, features and/or giving examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Signal Words and Phrases</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>descriptive words (e.g., color, shape, size)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>position words (e.g., above, along, beside, between, in front of, near)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appears to be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consists of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Features</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Comprehension Question Frames

- What is the subject being described?
- How is the topic being described (i.e., where it is, what it does, how it works, what it looks like, its classification)?
- What are the most important attributes or characteristics?

See example from 5th grade Amharic students’ textbook, page 5

### Graphic Organizers

![Diagram](image-url)
## Compare and Contrast

**Purpose:** to describe what is similar and/or different about two or more subjects.

### Signal Words and Phrases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>alike</th>
<th>but</th>
<th>in composition</th>
<th>same as</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>also</td>
<td>compared to</td>
<td>in contrast</td>
<td>similar to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>although</td>
<td>despite</td>
<td>instead of</td>
<td>similarly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as opposed to</td>
<td>different from</td>
<td>just</td>
<td>too</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as well as</td>
<td>either or</td>
<td>on the contrary</td>
<td>unlike</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both</td>
<td>however</td>
<td>on the other hand</td>
<td>yet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in common</td>
<td>opposite</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Comprehension Question Frames

- What sequence of events is being described?
- What are the major events or incidents that occur?
- What happens first, next, last?
- How is the sequence or cycle revealed in the text?
- What are the steps, directions, procedures to follow to make to do something

### Graphic Organizers

![Graphic Organizers Diagram](image-url)
### Chronology/ Sequence

**Purpose:** To provide information in time order or the order in which events, actions or steps in a process occur.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Signal Words and Phrases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>after</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as soon as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at the same time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>before</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>directions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>during</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>finally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>first/second/third</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>immediately</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>initially</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>last</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>later</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meanwhile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>next</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prior to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>simultaneously</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>soon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>step</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>then</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>today</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>until</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>when</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Comprehension Question Frames**

- What subjects are being compared?
- How are the subjects being compared?
- What are the characteristics of each subject?
- What characteristics are the same?

**Graphic Organizers**

1. ____________________________  **step 1**
2. ____________________________  **step 2**
3. ____________________________  **step 3**
4. ____________________________  **step 4**

---

**ACTIVITY 7: REFLECTION ON ACTIVITY 7**

Now let’s go back to the expository passage you read from the primary MT Text. Were you correct in your prediction of the text structure? What type is it? What signal words do you see in the passage that help you recognize the type of text structure?
6.3. IMPROVING COMPREHENSION: EFFECTIVE QUESTIONING AND MEANINGFUL DISCUSSIONS

Asking specific questions and scaffolding conversations, about what is being listened and read, can help by:

- Setting the purpose for listening and reading
- Focusing attention on the topic and what is to be learned
- Helping students think about what they hear or what they read
- Supporting students in identifying what they do and do not understand
- Helping them relate the topic and content to what they already know

When students answer questions, it is important to provide support, or scaffolding. Effective types of scaffolding include:

- Asking open-ended questions that require more than a yes/no response
- Modeling different ways to answer questions – there are several correct answers
- Using different types/levels of questions and providing prompts
- Paraphrasing and expanding student responses
- When needed, requesting clarification or a more complete answer
- Providing specific feedback
- Providing sufficient wait time/thinking time for students to think and respond (ask a question, wait for some seconds or a minute)
- Encouraging students to ask questions as they read
- Teaching strategies that support higher level thinking (e.g. Q&R)

Asking questions supports understanding and retention of what is being learned. Questions can also promote a deeper understanding of the content (Gunning, 2013). One way of understanding the levels of thinking involved in questioning is to look at the levels of questions (the taxonomy). At the basic level are the simple questions called “right there.” These questions ask: Who? What? When? Where? These responses require recall of facts, events, and names – information can be found ‘right there’ in the text. The focus of these types of questions is on the information found in the text and students simply rephrase what has just been read. (Just Read, Florida, 2003).

More complex questions are implicit, and not all of the answers can be found in the text. The questions are: How? What? Why? These responses require the student to move from what is found in the passage to analyzing and elaborating information. The student must think about what has been read and use prior knowledge to draw conclusions.

Bloom’s Taxonomy is one way of understanding the levels of questions.
### Table 13 BLOOM’S TAXONOMY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bloom’s Definition</th>
<th>Knowledge</th>
<th>Comprehension</th>
<th>Application</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
<th>Synthesis</th>
<th>Evaluation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Remember previously learned information.</td>
<td>Demonstrate an understanding of the facts.</td>
<td>Apply knowledge to actual situations.</td>
<td>Break down objects or ideas into simpler parts and find evidence to support generalizations.</td>
<td>Compile component ideas into a new whole or propose alternative solutions.</td>
<td>Make and defend judgments based on internal evidence or external criteria.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Verbs
- Arrange
- Define
- Describe
- Duplicate
- Identify
- Label
- List
- Match
- Memorize
- Name
- Order
- Outline
- Recognize
- Relate
- Recall
- Repeat
- Reproduce
- Select
- State
- Classify
- Convert
- Defend
- Describe
- Discuss
- Distinguish
- Estimate
- Explain
- Express
- Extend
- Generalized
- Give
- example(s)
- Identify
- Indicate
- Infer
- Locate
- Paraphrase
- Predict
- Recognize
- Rewrite
- Review
- Select
- Summarize
- Translate
- Analyze
- Appraise
- Breakdown
- Calculate
- Categorize
- Compare
- Contrast
- Criticize
- Diagram
- Differentiate
- Discriminate
- Distinguish
- Examine
- Experiment
- Identify
- Illustrate
- Infer
- Model
- Outline
- Predict
- Prepare
- Produce
- Relate
- Schedule
- Show
- Sketch
- Solve
- Use
- Write
- Arrange
- Assemble
- Categorize
- Collect
- Combine
- Comply
- Compose
- Construct
- Create
- Design
- Develop
- Devise
- Explain
- Formulate
- Generate
- Plan
- Prepare
- Rearrange
- Reconstruct
- Relate
- Reorganize
- Revise
- Rewrite
- Set up
- Summarize
- Synthesize
- Tell
- Appraise
- Argue
- Assess
- Attach
- Choose
- Compare
- Conclude
- Contrast
- Define
- Describe
- Discriminate
- Estimate
- Evaluate
- Explain
- Judge
- Justify
- Interpret
- Relate
- Predict
- Rate
- Select
- Summarize
- Support
- Value

### ACTIVITY 8: Analyzing MT Passage Questions

Look at a passage from one of the primary MT Student’s Book and identify how the questions from the passage apply Bloom’s Taxonomy. Write the questions in the table below and identify which level of Bloom’s Taxonomy each question falls into. (NOTE: during adaptation, use an example from primary MT text grades 5-8)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Level of Bloom’s Taxonomy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the analysis:

A) How many of the questions ask recall types of questions?

B) How many of the questions ask students to summarize and/or analyze the text?

One effective strategy that can help students understand the levels of questions that are found in the Primary MT Text is called Question-Answer-Relationship (Gunning, 2003). This strategy helps students realize that not all the answers can be found in the text. Some questions require putting together several pieces of information. This information may come from the book, but the student may also need to use prior background experiences and what they know about the topic to draw inferences. All readers, especially struggling readers, can benefit from this strategy by learning how to identify the type of question that is being asked. There are 4 levels of questions, based on where the answer can/can’t be found in the text:

A) Right there: the answer can be found in one sentence in the text.

B) Think and Search: the answer is found by looking at several sentences in the text.

C) On my own: the student must use background knowledge to answer the question.

D) Author and me; the student must use both information in the text and their prior knowledge.

Video Title: Question Answer Relationship

6.4. TEACHING COMPREHENSION IN INCLUSIVE SETTINGS: CONSIDERING DIVERSITY

Many of the instructional methods and strategies and teaching techniques discussed in this chapter can provide for an inclusive classroom and meet the needs of diverse students. Here are some examples:

Instructional Methods

- Pre-teaching new vocabulary
- Using explicit teaching of new strategies and concepts
- Frequent summarization
- Planning structured oral language activities (e.g. asking open ended questions)
- Asking a variety of levels of questions, provide scaffolding for higher-level questions
- Teaching the QAR (Question-Answer Relationship) strategy. The four types of Question-Answer Relationships are Right There, Think and Search, On My Own, and Author and Me, (Honig et al., 2000). You will practice this strategy in MT 222.
- Reminding students to frequently monitor comprehension
- Use of graphic organizers
- Activating prior knowledge
In addition, when teaching strategies for comprehension, explicit instruction is the most effective method (Gunning, 2013). Explicit instruction helps diverse learners understand how to use strategies.

There are six steps to follow:

1) Introduce the strategy: what it is, why it is being taught, and how it will help when reading for understanding.

2) Demonstrate and model the strategy. Show how to use it, model and think-aloud while you are using it; talk about what you are doing.

3) Provide guided practice. Practice the strategy with the students. Gradually let them take more responsibility when completing the strategy.

4) Provide independent practice and application. Strategies (e.g. use of graphic organizers) can vary according to the topic and context. Students need opportunities to practice and use strategies across different subject areas and with both genres.

5) Assess and re-teach. It is important to observe students to see if they are using the strategy correctly and effectively. Also, use of graphic organizers provides a written example of how a student uses a strategy.

6) Provide ongoing reinforcement and implementation. It is important to remind students when to use strategies and which strategies are most helpful. After reading, you may ask the students “What strategies did you use? Did you ask questions?” Also, remember to praise students you see using the strategy.
CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY

This chapter has given an overview of the concept of listening and reading comprehension and their levels. It also discusses:

- Reading comprehension models
- Listening and reading comprehension strategies
- Reading comprehension of different genres
- Listening and reading comprehension instructional approaches. This includes teaching comprehension strategies; instructional strategies are: before, during and after listening and reading.

Comprehension (understanding) has to be developed from the very start. It cannot be left until the learners are able to break words down into their components or until they can read a certain number of sight words. The following are ways of developing comprehension:

- Activate the reader’s prior knowledge
- Read aloud to learners
- Help learners to use clues and illustrations in and around the text
- Develop the reader’s decoding skills
- Develop fluency
- Increase vocabulary
- Ask higher order questions (evaluation, analysis, ad synthesis)
- Teach students narrative and expository text structure

This chapter has also considered inclusive settings. A language teacher has to use different strategies and techniques while teaching reading comprehension in order to meet the diverse needs of students.

CHAPTER 6: REVIEW QUESTIONS

A) In your own words, summarize the two reading comprehension models.

B) Select two comprehension strategies for pre-reading, while reading, and post-reading and discuss how they can be used to improve comprehension skills. Why did you choose these strategies?

C) In your own words, discuss the following concepts in relation to comprehension:

- Brainstorming
- Student generated questions
- Monitoring comprehension (metacognition)
- Making inferences
- KWL
- Story map
- Story grammar
- Signal words
- Expository text structures (the 5 types)

D) Discuss the two types of text structure

E) Explain why students need multiple opportunities in reading expository text.
CHAPTER 6: SELF ASSESSMENT

Below are self-assessment statements. Copy them into your exercise book and put a check-mark (√) indicating if you agree or disagree with each statement.

Table 14: CHAPTER 6 SELF-ASSESSMENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATEMENTS</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I can state the importance of building children's listening skills (&quot;oral language skills&quot;) and explain how those skills are related to development in reading.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I can explain the reading comprehension models and their components.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I can describe listening and reading comprehension and their roles in learning to read and reading to learn.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I can explain the importance of genre knowledge and related text structures for comprehension.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I can apply instructional strategies to teach comprehension.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I can analyze a variety of effective comprehension strategies that students can use to support listening and reading comprehension.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I can identify a variety of effective comprehension strategies that students can use to support listening and reading comprehension.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I can relate comprehension strategies with new primary school textbooks.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I can ask questions at all levels of Bloom's Taxonomy.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 7: WRITING DEVELOPMENT

Time allotted for this chapter = 6 hours

CONTENT OUTLINE

7.1. Writing Skills
7.2. Writing Fluency
7.3. Principles for Teaching Writing
   7.3.1. Understanding Reasons for Writing
   7.3.2. Providing Many Writing Opportunities
   7.3.3. Helpful and Meaningful Feedback
7.4. Sentence Writing
7.5. Punctuation and Capitalization
7.6. Types of Sentence
7.7. The Writing Process
7.8. Writing a Sound Paragraph
   7.8.1. Elements of a Paragraph
   7.8.2. Qualities of a paragraph
   7.8.3. Types of Paragraphs
      7.8.3.1. Descriptive Paragraph
      7.8.3.2. Narrative Paragraph
      7.8.3.3. Argumentative Paragraph
      7.8.3.4. Expository Paragraph

INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on writing development. It discusses writing fluency and its components; process writing, principles and strategies for writing sentences; and different types of paragraphs. The basic parts and qualities of a good paragraph are also discussed in this chapter in addition, to punctuation marks and capitalization. There are opportunities for student teachers to practice the basic teaching techniques identified in the primary school syllabus.
LEARNING OUTCOMES

After completing this chapter, student teachers will be able to:

• Discuss writing skills.
• Explain the writing process.
• Explain writing fluency and its components.
• Identify principles of teaching writing and levels of support. (i.e., guided writing, etc.)
• Use punctuation marks and capital letters in writing properly.
• Discuss the types of sentences and conventions.
• Practice process writing (brainstorming, drafting).
• Write different types of paragraphs.
• Discuss the elements and qualities of a good paragraph.

TEACHING AND LEARNING TECHNIQUES

• Explicit instruction
• Teaching how to write meaningful sentences
• Demonstrating how to teach writing
• Modeling of successful instructional principles, including the process of writing and levels of support
• Active participation with hands-on activities
• Practicing writing skills, conventions
• Practicing how to develop a paragraph

ASSESSMENT TECHNIQUES

• Questioning and answering
• Guided review
• Summarizing and reflecting
• Informal monitoring
• Practicing writing
• Peer review
• Individual work
• Group production
• Quizzes and in-class exams
• Classroom participation

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

• Using graphic organizers (spider diagram)
• Flip chart
• Grades 1-8 MT syllabus and students’ textbook
• Model materials
7.1 WRITING SKILLS

Human beings have been expressing their thoughts, feelings and experiences for a long time; beginning with cave paintings. We write about everyday events and very complex ideas. Writing is encoding or recording our ideas and thoughts using the script of the language (encoding) to communicate (Graham & Perin, 2007). Writing is part of the learning process; student must learn to write so that others can understand what has been written. Students write to process information and communicate with others (e.g. friends, teachers, family, etc.) Writing is a method of representing language in visual or physical form. Also it’s a system that uses sets of symbols to represent the sounds of speech, and symbols for writing conventions, and numerals. To write clearly, it is essential to understand the basic system of a language; such as knowledge of grammar, punctuation, and sentence structure. Vocabulary is also necessary, as is correct spelling and formatting.

7.2 WRITING FLUENCY

Fluent writers spell words automatically and write quickly; they can focus on developing their ideas. Their writing seems to flow effortlessly, and the writers’ voice is visible. Fluent writing sounds like talking, it has “voice.” Fluency is a crucial for writers as it is for readers, and the components are similar.

AUTOMATICITY

Fluent writers write most words automatically, without having to stop and think about how to spell them. Children must know how to spell high frequency words and be able to apply strategies to spell other words. Weak spellers focus so much on the spelling of a word that they forget the sentence they’re writing or what to write next.

SPEED

Children need to write quickly enough to keep pace with their thinking. Researchers have examined the number of words children write per minute, compared their speed to the quality of their compositions. It is thought that children need to write ten words per minute to be considered fluent writers (Graham, Weintraub, & Berninger, 1998). This varies from language to language. Most third graders reach this rate. Because girls usually do more writing than boys do, it isn’t surprising that they write one or two words per minute faster than boys. Sometimes legibility is a problem. Students can’t sacrifice neatness for speed; writing quickly doesn’t help if readers can’t interpret children’s writing.

WRITER’S VOICE

Writers develop distinctive voices that reflect their individuality (Spandel, 2009). Voice, which is similar to prosody, is the tone or emotional feeling of a piece of writing. Writers develop their voices through the words they choose and how they connect words to make sentences. Each child’s voice is unique. Teachers can usually identify who wrote a composition according to its voice, just as many of us can identify books written by our favorite authors by their voice.
**Table 14- CHARACTERISTICS OF FLUENT WRITERS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Automaticity</td>
<td>• Children spell most high frequency words correctly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Children apply spelling patterns and rules to spell words correctly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speed</td>
<td>• Children write quickly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Children write easily, without discomfort.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Children write legibly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Children develop keyboarding skills to word process quickly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writer’s Voice</td>
<td>• Children’s writing has a personal style.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Children use distinctive vocabulary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Children incorporate particular sentence structures into their writing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*(Tompkins, 2015, p.173-4)*

**ACTIVITY 1**

**Answer the following questions in groups.**

A) Discuss on the above components of writing fluency.

B) Identify which components are strong skills for you.

**7.3. PRINCIPLES FOR TEACHING WRITING**

Writing is one of the skills that support reading comprehension development. There are general principles that teachers should take into consideration while teaching writing. These principles are: understanding the reasons for writing, providing many opportunities for writing practice, clarifying how the writing will be evaluated, and using helpful and meaningful feedback.

**7.3.1 UNDERSTANDING REASONS FOR WRITING**

It is important to teach students how to state goals of writing before starting to write. A writer should say the reason why s/he intended to write. If the writer does not state her/his goal for writing, he/she may spend the time wondering what to write. A writer should provide answers to the question “why?” before to start writing. Answering this question will help the writer to find a focus for the writing (John, 2005). For young writers, it helps to give some topics for writing. Topics should be from everyday events (chores, visiting family, making friends, etc.)

**7.3.2 PROVIDING MANY WRITING OPPORTUNITIES**

Writing is almost always improved with practice. If someone wanted to become an excellent basketball player, would she read and discuss about basketball, or would she go out and shoot some baskets? Just as basketball players practice playing basketball, writers should practice writing. Writing practice should provide students with different opportunities and reasons for writing (John, 2005).
7.3.3. HELPFUL AND MEANINGFUL FEEDBACK

Students want and need feedback on their writing, yet it does not always have the expected effect. If you write comments on students’ papers, make sure they understand the vocabulary or symbols you use. Be conscious of the tone of your comments. When we write short comments, we tend to use simple words. Instead of writing the comment as “unclear” or just “?”, it is recommended to write, “I am not sure I understand your points here.” Feedback should not always require “correcting” student’s writing. In order to foster independent writers, you can provide summary comments that instruct students to look for problems and correct them in their own. For instance, instead of adding “-s” to the end of every first person present tense verb, a comment at the end might say, “There are some verbs missing an –s at the end, this is needed when writing about a single person, so try to locate and correct those verbs” (John, 2005).

7.4. SENTENCE WRITING

A sentence is a group of words that are logically ordered so as to give complete meaning. It is also well structured and correct in grammar. Learning to write sentences is a process. The ability to write and communicate is a strong predictor of academic success (Graham & Perin, 2007). Writing and reading support each other and improve both reading and writing skills (Gunning, 2013). When children write responses to what is read and what has been learned, they are writing for real reasons. This improves their writing. Also, written responses increase comprehension (Tompkins, 2003). To write sentences, and longer passages, a student must: use prior knowledge, set a purpose for writing (e.g. summarize a story), and organize the sentence/paragraph so that the reader can understand what has been written. Writing is also important when learning content are subjects; writing helps the students to understand complex subject information (Tompkins, 2003).

Students use the structure of their MT to write a sentence: syntax, how the words are ordered in their MT; semantics, what the words mean in this sentence; morphology and prefixes/suffixes, how the word parts are combined. The student must be able to combine words into a sentence that makes sense to the reader and communicates what the writer is trying to say.

ACTIVITY 2: GROUP WORK

A) Write the following words in your exercise book and rearrange them to make sentences.

- eats/dog/a/meat
- the/goes/boy/to/everyday/school
- she/the/drives/safely/car/
- students/school/always/arrive/time/on/to

B) In a group, compare how the words were written and how they were sequenced to make a sentence (syntax). Share your ideas to the class.

Teachers can support young writers in a variety of ways. They should provide the most support when students are learning to write and then gradually release the support so that students are writing and the teacher is encouraging them and providing feedback as they work independently. Teachers can first model writing sentences, discuss how the sentences make sense and relate to the topic (read aloud, student oral presentation, etc.). Teachers can also use shared writing where the teacher and student work together to write the sentence. The students provide suggestions for the sentence and the teacher
writes. The next step is to use interactive writing where the sentence is written by the teacher and the students. Finally, the students write sentences by themselves. These levels of support will be practiced in TMT 222.

7.5 PUNCTUATION AND CAPITALIZATION

Punctuation is the system of symbols that we use to separate written sentences and parts of sentences, and to make their meaning clear. Each symbol is called a “punctuation mark”.

IN LATIN SCRIPT:

FULL STOP OR PERIOD (.)

- Use a full stop at the end of a sentence. (e.g. ‘The man arrived.’ ‘He sat down.’)
- Use full stops with abbreviations: Co. (Company), etc. (et cetera), Dr. (doctor)

QUESTION MARK (?)

- The main function of a question mark is to indicate a question or query. Use a question mark at the end of all direct questions: (e.g. What is your name?)
- Use a question mark after a tag question: You’re Ethiopian, aren’t you?

EXCLAMATION MARK (!)

- An exclamation mark usually shows strong feeling, such as surprise, anger or joy. (E.g., she shouted at him, “Go away! I hate you!” “Shut up!” “Stop!”)
- Remember: try to avoid exclamation marks in formal writing such as an essay or business letter.

COMMA (,)

- A comma in writing is like a pause inside a sentence when speaking. It also separate parts of a sentence into logical elements. (E.g., My favorite sports are running, jumping, swimming, boxing and volleyball.).

SEMI-COLON (;)

- We sometimes use a semi-colon instead of a full stop for conjunctions. This is to separate sentences that are grammatically independent but that have closely connected meaning (e.g. Josef likes coffee; Mary likes tea).

COLON (:)

- Use a colon to introduce a list: (e.g. There are three countries in North America: Mexico, the USA and Canada. The six neighboring countries of Ethiopia are: Somalia, South Sudan, Sudan, Djibouti, Eritrea and Kenya.)

APOSTROPHE (’)

- Apostrophe can be used to show: Possession (E.g., the ball of the boy → the boy’s ball);
- Contracted form (E.g., Cannot → can’t, it is or it has → it’s)

CAPITALIZATION is the writing of a word in a sentence with its first letter in uppercase and the remaining letters in lowercase.
Even experienced writers do not always use capitals. It is best not to use them if there is any doubt.

- There are rules to capitalization such as capitalizing the first letter of the first word at the beginning of a new sentence.
- Writers have to capitalize the names of: buildings, churches, schools, parks, continents, countries, districts, towns, villages, communities, proper noun, etc.
  - The student’s name is Jemila; she is a very clever student.
  - My country Ethiopia is …
  - Addis Ababa is the capital city of ….

Note: The above examples refer to the Latin script. Remember that you have to use the appropriate punctuation marks of Saba Script in Amharic and Tigrigna. You may select an appropriate activity from Grades 5-8 students’ textbooks for your respective MT. For example, you can find a model for using punctuation marks in grade 6 unit 1, week 3, Day 8, page 20; and in grade 8 unit 6, week 3, Day 8, page 141 of the Amharic Students’ Textbook.

7.6 TYPES OF SENTENCES

Sentence can be divided into two major parts based on two criteria: function and structure.

I  BASED ON THEIR FUNCTION:

A) **Declarative sentences**: statement to relay information or ideas. They are punctuated with a simple period. (e.g., Green is my favorite color).

B) **Interrogative sentences**: always ask questions and end in question mark. It may require a simple yes/no response or are more open ended (e.g. Have you had breakfast?).

C) **Imperative sentences**: issue commands or requests or they can express a desire or wish. They are punctuated with a simple period. It all depends on the strength of emotion you want to express (e.g. Watch for oncoming traffic.).

D) **Exclamatory sentences**: exclamatory sentences express strong emotion. Exclamatory sentences always end with an exclamation mark (e.g. The River is rising!).

II  BASED ON THEIR STRUCTURE:

A) **A simple sentence**: a simple sentence, also called an independent clause, contains a subject and a verb and it expresses a complete thought (e.g. Some students like to study in the mornings.).

B) **A compound sentence**: a compound sentence contains two independent clauses joined by a coordinator like but, and, or or (e.g. A boy reads a book but a girl completes exercise.)

C) **A complex sentence**: a complex sentence has one dependent clause (headed by a subordinating conjunction or a relative pronouns) joined to an independent clause (E.g. Although she came late, the teacher let her enter the class.).

D) **Compound complex sentences**: A compound-complex sentence is made from two independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses. (E.g. Although I like to go camping, I
E) **Independent clause:** “I haven’t had the time to go lately” Independent clause: “I haven’t found anyone to go with” Dependent clause: “Although I like to go camping...”

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**7.7. THE WRITING PROCESS**

This topic will explain and illustrate the steps used when writing; such as pre-writing, draft, revising editing, and publishing (Tompkins, 2003). Teaching and learning these processes will help student teachers to develop confidence when teaching writing. Student teachers should understand the processes used in writing. They must practice writing so that they can help their students—children in the primary schools—to develop good writing skills. It is important to remember that students do not always move from one step to another; they may go back and forth through these steps/stages as they work to complete a final writing product. Students should be taught that there are different processes that are used when writing, for example:

**THE WRITING PROCESS INVOLVES FIVE STAGES. THESE ARE PRE-WRITING, WRITING A DRAFT, REVIS-ING, EDITING AND PUBLISHING.**

**A. PRE-WRITING**

1) Selecting a topic and setting a purpose
2) Gathering information
3) Narrowing information
4) Organizing information
5) Outlining information

When teaching the pre-writing stage, students should be taught how to select a topic, gather information, narrow information, organize the information chronologically, and finally outline the information. Specific techniques of pre-writing are suggested below:

1) **SELECTING A TOPIC AND SETTING A PURPOSE**
   
   A) One important task in the writing process is selecting a topic. Oral story telling is an effective way to search for a good topic when writing a personal narrative. Writers can quickly tell a story and judge from the listeners’ reactions whether it will be an interesting topic to write about.

   B) Another way to find a topic is to free write. When free writing, you write any and every idea that comes to your mind. This could also be a written exploration of your current knowledge of a broad topic, with the idea that you are looking for a narrow topic to write about (John, 2002). After the topic is selected, the purpose of the writing needs to be decided...
to provide clear structure for gathering information and organization of ideas.

2) **GATHERING INFORMATION**

A) There are several methods that can help you to gather information about the topic you want to write. Some of them are listed below.

   i) *Using Spider Diagram:* This method, and other graphic organizers, can be used to get detailed information related to the topic we are writing.

   ii) *Brainstorming:* This is also another way of gathering information related to the topic you are writing. In this case you can write down every point that comes to your mind.

   iii) c. Using different reading materials related to the topic

3) **NARROWING INFORMATION**

Narrowing a topic is an important step in writing process. The writer must consider the goals of communication, content, audience, and the importance of information. He/she should also consider how much space is allowed for the writing and how he/she can write effectively.

4) **ORGANIZING INFORMATION**

A) At this point the writer needs to consider the organization of content:

   iv) Organization of the information may be chronologically, by spatial relationships, or by sub-topics.

   v) Clustering is also another way of organizing information. It is a technique of creating a visual network that represents associations among ideas; it helps in creating structure because it reveals relationships.

   vi) Combining items that are similar and arrange the information from most important to least pertinent.

   vii) Sort and rearrange the information on one list until you have finished.

5) **OUTLINING INFORMATION**

When you have sorted through and rearranged all of your lists, you are ready to write an outline. The number of sub-topics you have will depend on the amount of information.

**B. WRITING A DRAFT**

1. Write a rough draft

2. Emphasize ideas rather that mechanical correctness

When you write a first draft, be prepared to add thoughts and details that you did not think about during outlining. You do not want to take time correcting words or sentences that you may decide to remove later. Instead, make it your goal to state your main idea clearly and develop the content of your draft with plenty of specific details (John, 2002).

**C. REVISING**

1. Reread the rough draft

2. Share your writing in a revising group

3. Make substantive changes
4. Proof read the revised rough draft

5. Identify and correct spelling, capitalization, punctuation, and grammar errors

6. Revising means that you rewrite a paper, building upon what has already been written, in order to make it stronger. Revision is like cleaning the house-getting free of all the junk and putting things in the right order (John, 2002).

7. To revise the content of the paper, ask the following questions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do I have a main idea that is clearly stated at the beginning of my writing?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do all my supporting points truly support and back up main idea?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do I have specific evidences for each supporting point?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do I have a clear method of organizing my paper?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do I use transitional and other connecting words?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**D. EDITING**

Editing is checking a paper for mistakes in grammar, punctuation, usage, and spelling. Editing as well as proofreading is checking a paper for typing and other careless errors (John, 2002).

In revising your work, consider the following points:

1) Be sure all sentences are complete
2) Correct spelling, capitalization, and punctuation
3) Change words that are not used correctly
4) Retype it correctly and neatly

**E. PUBLISHING**

1) Make the final copy
2) Share the writing with an audience
3) Publishing is the final stage in writing. At this level, the above stages are expected to be incorporated. Here communication through writing begins with the absence of the writer.

**Activity 3**

Answer the following questions individually. Then share your answer with your partner.

A) What is the importance of following all the stages of the writing process (pre-writing, writing a draft, revising, editing and publishing) when writing a text, be it an essay or a paragraph?

B) Which of the stages of the writing process do you usually use when you write? Is there a
stage that you often overlook? Does that affect the quality of your writing?

C) What might happen if you don’t follow all the 5 stages of the writing process? How would that affect how you teach children to write?

D) How would you teach writing using the above process?

7.8. WRITING A SOUND PARAGRAPH

A paragraph is a set of interrelated sentences that focus on a central idea. There is a single topic, or one idea within a topic that is discussed in a paragraph. The purpose is to provide information and discuss one point related to the topic and to provide ideas and/or opinions (John, 2002). Any single paragraph should usually deal with one topic or subject. As students progress in school, they will be required to analyze complex subject-area information and to write about what has been learned. They will need to write so that others can understand. They will also need to be able to compare concepts, evaluate the information, and give opinions. To do this, students will be required to write longer passages. Students first learn to write a simple paragraph and then multiple paragraphs about what is read, and to make class presentations, etc. Teachers will need to provide explicit instruction in understanding the writing process, the types of writing, and in writing so that the reader can understand what has been written.

7.8.1 ELEMENTS OF A PARAGRAPH

An academic paragraph has three elements: topic sentence, supporting sentences and concluding sentence. Each element has its own features. As a writer, you should be aware of these elements and how to use them. When teaching paragraph writing, teachers should first identify these basic parts and teach them. These are:

I. TOPIC SENTENCES

Each paragraph should begin with the sentence that introduces a topic. It forecasts what the paragraph is going to be about. It also names and limits the topic. However, the topic sentence may not necessarily appear at the beginning of a paragraph. The main topic should be narrowed down to be manageable in a paragraph. The topic sentence should contain a controlling idea that dictates all the later thoughts and ideas.

II. SUPPORTING SENTENCES

Supporting sentences are details that explain the subject that you introduced in your topic sentence. They develop the topic sentence by giving reasons, examples, facts, statistics and quotations. The idea you add in the body part should develop from one sentence to the next sentence and add more information closely linked to the topic sentence. You should give details of the topic sentence by supporting with examples/evidence, ideas or facts from the real-life context.

III. CONCLUDING SENTENCE

This sentence ends the paragraph by giving a brief summary of what you just wrote about. It emphasizes the insights you have about the topic.
ACTIVITY 4: INDIVIDUAL WORK

Read the following paragraph and identify the topic sentence, supporting sentences, and concluding sentence. Each sentence in the paragraph has a number. There are nine (9) sentences. Indicate below what sentences correspond to each of the three types of sentences. Check only the boxes which indicate the number of the sentence/s selected (the number indicated at the beginning of each sentence).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a) Topic sentence:</th>
<th>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>b) Supporting sentences:</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Concluding sentence:</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are reasons students drop out of the college. Some students are not really sure they want to be in college and lack the desire to do the work. When exams come up, these students will not do the required studying. As a result, they may dropout because their grades are so poor. Other students drop out for financial reasons. They can’t get textbooks, reference materials, and other relevant resources from their family. Some of the students also drop out because they have personal problems. They cannot concentrate on their courses. Generally, many students drop out of college due different factors or reasons (John, 2002).

7.8.2. QUALITIES OF A PARAGRAPH

Quality is the unity and coherence of a paragraph. A paragraph must have the basic parts, for it to have quality. Their absence would make the message the writer is trying to say hard to understand. The reader would not be able to comprehend the theme of the paragraph. To be effective, the paragraph should contain these qualities.

1) UNITY

Unity is the oneness of the idea in a paragraph. In a unified paragraph, the topic sentence, the body, and the concluding sentence must relate to one main idea.

2) COHERENCE

A coherent paragraph flows in a clear direction and all the sentences are logically arranged. The ideas in the sentences are connected thoughts and there is an explanation of the ideas. A true paragraph is not just a set of sentences listed in a paragraph, but sentences which relate to each other. A teacher should teach about this quality and how to maintain coherence. One way is to use transition words to help move the reader through what is written. A list of these words may be posted on the wall to help writers:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Illustration</th>
<th>Thus, for example, for instance, namely, to illustrate, in other words, in particular, specifically, such as</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>One the contrary, contrarily, but, however, nevertheless, in spite of, in contrast, on the other hand, rather, at the same time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addition</td>
<td>And, in addition to, furthermore, moreover, besides, too, also, another, further, not only—but also, as well as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concession</td>
<td>Although, at least, thought, even though, while, in spite of, of course.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Similarity</td>
<td>Similarly, likewise, like, in like manner, analogous to</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3) COMPLETENESS

Completeness is one of the basic elements of the paragraph which emphasizes detailed elaboration of the main idea of the paragraph. So to make a paragraph complete, enough information about the topic is needed.

SAMPLE PARAGRAPH

“Sunday is my favorite day because I spend the day watching football with my dad. On Sunday, unlike the other days of the week when he works, my dad spends the whole day with me watching the Ethiopian team play football on TV. We even eat lunch together while watching. The highlight of the day is watching the game. Dad and I get so excited, we yell and cheer together. On Sundays, I get to combine watching my favorite sport and spending time with my favorite person—what a great day!”

ACTIVITY 5

Complete the paragraph using the transition words listed below.

Insert the following transition words between the sentences to complete the paragraph.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AND</th>
<th>AS A RESULT</th>
<th>WHERE</th>
<th>THEREFORE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOREOVER</td>
<td>ALSO</td>
<td>OR</td>
<td>BEFORE</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Vegetation covers the earth except for those areas continuously covered with ice ______ heat. Richly fertilized areas ___________ river valleys are the places ____________ plants grow most richly. The oceans and its edges are_________________________ densely vegetated. ____________ the earth was covered with vegetation____________________ humans existed.

7.8.3. TYPES OF PARAGRAPH

There are four major types of paragraphs. These are descriptive, narrative, argumentative, and expository paragraphs. Teaching types of paragraphs helps to identify the specific characteristics of each type and helps students write paragraph having unity, coherence and completeness. It also can help the students select the appropriate topic sentence, supporting sentences, and concluding sentence that would match the paragraph type.
7.8.3.1 DESCRIPTIVE PARAGRAPH

A descriptive paragraph describes people, places, things, events and locations with enough detail to help the reader create a mental picture of what is being written. The best way for a writer to help the reader get a clear picture, is to use language that appeals to the senses: sight, touch, sound, smell, and taste (John, 2005). A teacher should teach using models and providing support. He/she can use adjectives to create a mental image for the reader.

MODEL EXAMPLE OF DESCRIPTIVE PARAGRAPH

My Dreams

My house would have a large, bright kitchen where I could sit quietly as a wooden table admiring the view of the garden through the window. My living room would be simple with basic furniture like a long soft sofa and two large armchairs. It would have a fireplace so I could keep warm on cold windy nights. There would also be several wooden bookcases full of books to keep me company. My bedroom would have a sofa bed with a white linen bed cover and the walls would be painted a soothing pale blue (John, 2005).

Note: Remember to include a descriptive paragraph from primary textbooks (grades 5 to 8) in your respective MT.

ACTIVITY 6

Complete the following activities individually. Then share your writing with your partner. Take turns giving and receiving feedback on what you wrote.

A) Read the model descriptive paragraph above and write a paragraph containing five sentences that describes your dreams. Try to use as diverse sentence types as possible (i.e., simple, compound, and complex).

B) How would you teach students how to develop a descriptive paragraph?

7.8.3.2. NARRATIVE PARAGRAPH

The aim of a narrative paragraph is to tell story events, from the writer’s point of view. Its main goal is to make a point by telling the audience a story. Colorful details and interesting events, that build up to a point, make narrative paragraph enjoyable for readers and writers alike. A teacher should teach how to write a narrative paragraph including use of models.
MODEL EXAMPLE OF NARRATIVE PARAGRAPH

BUILDING A DAM

There is a new dam being built near Bahir Dar. The people who live in the area have many talks about the dam. There are many Ethiopians who often visit the dam and encourage the workers morally. The people talk about how the dam will provide more electricity and how that will help them in their villages. However, some that live near the Abay River discuss what may happen to the river.

Mara and her friends live near the Abay River and wonder what will happen when the new dam is completed. They talk about the river and how much fun it is to play near the river and to spend time together. They also talk about how the new dam will provide more electricity. Tamara is hoping that her house will have electricity so they can stay up later at night. However, Mara worries that the river will change with the new dam and that it may no longer be safe to play near the river. Mara thinks about all the good times they had playing by the river.

ACTIVITY 7

Complete the following activity individually.

A) Read the above model paragraph and write a narrative paragraph containing six sentences about your school.

B) How would you teach students to develop a narrative paragraph?

7.8.3.3. ARGUMENTATIVE PARAGRAPH

Argumentative writing attempts to convince or persuade the reader to have the opinion about the topic. It is often used to address controversial issues, that is, serious issue over which there is some disagreement. Thus, it sets out a main claim and then provides reasons for thinking that the claim is true. Best argumentation should include both persuasive and logical appeals. A teacher should clearly teach the students about these characteristics of argumentative paragraph clearly.

MODEL EXAMPLE OF ARGUMENTATIVE PARAGRAPH

ART EDUCATION

Many people had a bad experience of creating art at school. It is seen as an extra subject, like sport or music. Less time is spent on art in schools: it is being squeezed out of the curriculum to make room for the serious subjects like math and science. In my view, this is a big mistake. There are a number of reasons why I believe art is a very important part of a child’s education. Firstly, it teaches children to think in a completely different way. Another benefit of art education is that everyone can do it. Each child can work at their own speed, at their own level and at what interests them. Perhaps it is the physical, tactile nature of art as well as the visual that makes it so involving. Most children enjoy art and they learn. Generally, art is not just a pretty face but an essential part of education (John, 2005).
ACTIVITY 8: INDIVIDUAL WORK

Read the above model paragraph and write an argumentative paragraph containing eight sentences using the topic: *students should only learn science*. You can write arguing for or against the idea. Make it persuasive.

7.8.3.4. EXPOSITORY PARAGRAPH

The main intention of expository paragraph is to explain and to give facts/information to the readers. Expository paragraphs include many categories. The following is an overview of the three sub-types of expository paragraph.

A. COMPARE AND CONTRAST PARAGRAPH

The compare and contrast paragraph could discuss both similarities and differences. A comparison paragraph usually discusses the similarities between two things, while the contrast paragraph discusses the differences.

B. CAUSE AND EFFECT PARAGRAPH

You can organize a cause/effect paragraph by discussing both the causes and effects of a problem simultaneously, by stating an effect first and then discussing its causes, or by stating the causes first and then discussing its effects.

MODEL EXAMPLE OF CAUSE AND EFFECT PARAGRAPH

**City Life**

Currently, large populations live in urban areas, cities. There are several reasons for this occurrence. First, the increasing industrialization resulted in the creation of many jobs in the factory, which tended to be located in cities. The jobs with their promise of a better material life, attracted many people from rural areas. Second, there were many schools established to educate the children of the new factory laborers. The promise of a better education persuaded many families to leave farming communities and move to the cities. Finally, as the cities grew, people established places of leisure, entertainment, and culture, such as sports stadiums, theaters, and museums. For many people, these reasons made city life appear more interesting than life in the rural areas. As a result, many are leaving rural communities.

ACTIVITY 9

Write a paragraph based on the following information.

- Read the above model paragraph and write a cause/effect paragraph about students’ success in a college. Write at least a ten-line paragraph.

C. SEQUENCE PARAGRAPH

This paragraph describes a sequence of events (e.g. life cycle). It is similar to the procedure followed in conducting a scientific experiment.
Safe Water

The purification to make water safe to drink basically has two sequences. As the first step, natural water from the impure source is allowed to stand in large container where most of the mud, clay, and silt settle. Lime and aluminum sulfates are added in the container.

These chemicals react in water to form aluminum hydroxide, which settles slowly and carries much of the impurities to the bottom of the container. As the second step, the water is filtered through beds of sand and gravel which remove other impurities and chemicals in it. After filtration, chlorine is added to the water to kill any remaining harmful bacteria.

ACTIVITY 10

Develop your own sequence paragraph based on the following information.

Write your own paragraph, using 10 sentences, based on the above model example. Use the title “making coffee.”
CHAPTER 7: SUMMARY

This chapter mainly dealt with developing writing skills. The chapter discussed the need to develop writing fluency in order to communicate the writer’s thoughts and ideas in a simple and comprehensible manner. As reading fluency is a requisite for comprehension, writing fluency helps to communicate our ideas; it enhances coherence and clarity in written texts. The chapter also underlined that writing is a process that involves several stages: pre-writing, drafting, editing, revising and publishing. The quality of a written text depends on how thoroughly and intensively the writer applied the aforementioned stages of the writing process before, during and after writing the text. The written text can only be as good as the emphasis given to the five stages of the writing process. The chapter also discussed the different types of sentences, punctuation marks and paragraphs. At this level, the student teachers are expected to be well versed in writing paragraphs that have unity, coherence and are comprehensible. To this end, it is critical to consider the elements of a good paragraph and practice writing different types of paragraphs. The chapter also provided many opportunities to practice different aspects of writing skills and promote social construction of knowledge and skills through group and pair work activities.

CHAPTER 7: REVIEW QUESTIONS (WRITING SKILLS)

1) You are given an assignment to write a short essay about what you have learned about writing.
   a. Use the writing process to write your essay (you will need to write in your exercise book: your notes on brainstorming, rough draft, edits, and final draft)
   b. Make sure you have at least one sentence that represents each of the four types of sentences (based on structure).
   c. Assess your final paper using the indicators of writing fluency. What are the areas for improvement? Have you designed anything to improve that?

2) Develop four different types of paragraphs (each representing one of the types of paragraphs) and ask your peer to classify the paragraphs; take turns doing the same thing. If there are differences in classification, discuss why that happened.

3) Discuss in detail the qualities of a good paragraph.
CHAPTER 7: SELF-ASSESSMENT

Below are self-assessment items. Put a checkmark ✓ in the boxes on the right, indicating if you agree, disagree, or are not sure if you agree or do not agree with the statement on the left.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 15: CHAPTER 7 SELF-ASSESSMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Items Answer choices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I can describe the writing skills.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I can explain writing fluency and its components.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I can select a topic before I write.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I can use information gathering strategies during the writing process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I can use revising and editing procedures in writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I can identify types of sentences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I can discuss basic qualities of a paragraph and write one that has the basic qualities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I can explain the parts of a paragraph.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I can describe types of paragraph.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I can use the right punctuation when writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I can use transition words to help the reader move through the paragraph.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Cognitive Development and Literacy Skills

BIBLIOGRAPHY

CHAPTER 1: REFERENCES


Mejia, J. (2010). Early Grade Reading Assessment: National Baseline Report. USAID.


CHAPTER 2: REFERENCES


CHAPTER 3: REFERENCES


CHAPTER 4: REFERENCES


CHAPTER 5: REFERENCES


CHAPTER 6: REFERENCES


CHAPTER 7: REFERENCES


ANNEX A: GLOSSARY

Academic Vocabulary – words that are used in the school context that are not very common in everyday language

Characters – people or animals in a story and their traits

Concepts of Print – understanding the functions of a book and how books are used.

Content – the words we know and the meanings of those words

Decodable Text – a text where most of the words are totally decodable and the rest have been taught as sight words

Decoding – using knowledge of letter or fidel-sound relationships to correctly pronounce written words

Derivational Morpheme – change the form of a word by adding word parts; changes the part of speech (beauty + ful = beautiful)

Expository Text – a text that explains facts and concepts

Form – how sounds and word parts are combined to make words and words are combined to make sentences

Gradual Release – progressive teaching from the unknown to known, simple to complex, and near to far

Grammar – how words are combined to form sentences; the structure of a language

Graphemes – written symbols for a language (letter, fidel)

Graphophonemic Awareness – ability to match up graphemes (writing symbols) to sounds

Inferential Comprehension – when the information cannot be found directly in the text and one has to infer the meaning by using background knowledge or other strategies

Inflectional Morpheme – change the form of a word by adding word parts; indicates tense, gender, etc.; changes a verb tense or a noun’s number (hand + s = hands)

Intonation – the sound pattern of phrases and sentences produced by changes in pitch and variation in voice

Invented Spelling – students use what they know about words to make their best guess at spelling a word; however, the word is not spelled correctly. The spelling may represent the word based on sounds (e.g. the word you is spelled u), and other beginning strategies

Literal Comprehension – when the information that can be found directly in the text

Morpheme – the smallest part of a word that carries meaning (e.g. in the word farmer, there are two morphemes: farm and er)

Morphological Awareness – the ability to recognize the parts of words and word segments that convey meaning

Morphology – how words are structured, the word parts are combined to make a word and to create meaning

Narrative Text – a text that tells a story

Orthography – a writing system for representing language (e.g. Alphabetic, Saba)

Phoneme - the smallest unit of sound in a word.

Phonetic Stage of Spelling – the ability to write the correct letters/fidels for the word

Phonics – a way of teaching reading that stresses grapheme-sound correspondences and their use to read and spell words

Phonological Awareness – the ability to hear, distinguish, produce and work with the sounds in words (without including print)
Phonology – sounds of language
Plot - the problem or goal the main character in a narrative text faces and attempts to solve
Pragmatics/discourse/skills – how language is used for communication
Prefix – word part that is placed in the front of a word that changes the word meaning or makes a new word (re + new = renew)
Print Awareness - awareness of print that exists in the environment and in text
Print Concepts - see Concepts of Print (same meaning)
Schema – how we organize and store information (i.e., by conceptual categories)
Semantics – the meaning of words; the message being sent by the combination of words
Semi-Phonetic Stage of Spelling – writing the word using the letters for the sounds that are heard (e.g. the child writes u for the word you)
Setting – when and where the story takes place
Spelling – how the words are written in a language
Story Grammar – the key elements of narrative texts (e.g., plot, character, setting)
Suffix – a word part that is added to the end of a word that changes the word’s meaning and its function (run + er = runner)
Syllable - a unit of spoken language that is bigger than a single speech sound (phoneme)
Syntax – the sentence structure of a language
Theme – the main message of a narrative story
Use – how we use language to communicate
ANNEX B: HANDOUT: INFORMATIONAL TEXT STRUCTURE TEMPLATES

**Problem and Solution**
Purpose: to state one or more problems and provide one or more solutions to the problem.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Signal Words and Phrases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>advantage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as a result of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>because</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dilemma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disadvantage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in order to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>issue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>led to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>puzzle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>since</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>solution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>solved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Comprehension Question Frames**
- What is the problem?
- Who has the problem?
- Why is it a problem?
- What is causing the problem?
- Who has the problem?
- What solutions have been suggested or tried?
- What are the pros and cons of various solutions?

**Graphic Organizers**

```
Problem -> Solution
Problem -> Solution
Problem -> Solution
```
**Description**

**Purpose:** to explain a topic, concept, person, place, event or object by providing characteristics, features and/or giving examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Signal Words and Phrases</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>descriptive words (e.g., color, shape, size)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>position words (e.g., above, along, beside, between, in front of, near)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appears to be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for example</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>made up of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for instance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>most important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consists of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in fact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specifically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Features</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>looks like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>such as</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Comprehension Question**

**Frames**

- What is the subject being described?
- How is the topic being described (i.e., where it is, what it does, how it works, what it looks like, its classification)?
- What are the most important attributes or characteristics?

See example from 5th grade Amharic students’ textbook, page 5

**Graphic Organizers**
**Compare and Contrast**

**Purpose:** to describe what is similar and/or different about two or more subjects.

**Signal Words and Phrases**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>alike</th>
<th>but</th>
<th>in composition</th>
<th>same as</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>also</td>
<td>compared to</td>
<td>in contrast</td>
<td>similar to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>although</td>
<td>despite</td>
<td>instead of</td>
<td>similarly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as opposed to</td>
<td>different from</td>
<td>just</td>
<td>too</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as well as</td>
<td>either or</td>
<td>on the contrary</td>
<td>unlike</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both</td>
<td>however</td>
<td>on the other hand</td>
<td>yet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in common</td>
<td>opposite</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Comprehension Question Frames**

- What sequence of events is being described?
- What are the major events or incidents that occur?
- What happens first, next, last?
- How is the sequence or cycle revealed in the text?
- What are the steps, directions, procedures to follow to make to do something

**Graphic Organizers**

[Diagram of Venn diagram and two steps with arrows pointing to boxes]
## Cause and Effect

### Purpose: to explain why or how something happened/ happens

**Effect** = what happened  
**Cause** = why it happened

### Signal Words and Phrases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cause</th>
<th>Effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>as a result</td>
<td>outcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>because</td>
<td>reasons for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consequently</td>
<td>since</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>due to</td>
<td>so that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>effects of</td>
<td>therefore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for this reason</td>
<td>thus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>how</td>
<td>when ... then</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Comprehension Question Frames

1. What were the specific events that happened?
2. Why did the events happen? what were the causes?
3. What were the results or outcomes of these events happening? What was the effect?
4. Did prior events cause or influence the main events? If so, in what ways?
5. What is the significance of the event and/or the results (outcomes)?

### Graphic Organizers

![Cause and Effect Diagram](image)
Chronology/sequence

**Purpose:** to provide information in time order or the order in which events, actions or steps in a process occur.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Signal Words and Phrases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>after</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as soon as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at the same time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>before</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>directions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>during</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Comprehension Question Frames**

- What subjects are being compared?
- How are the subjects being compared?
- What are the characteristics of each subject?
- What characteristics are the same?

**Graphic Organizers**

1. ____________________________  
2.____________________________  
3.____________________________  
4.____________________________  

```plaintext
step 1
step 2
step 3
step 4
```